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The Professional Development of Teacher Educators in Shanghai

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Abstract

Teacher educators have increasingly been considered as a crucial occupational group for improving educational standards by the Chinese government, but they are under-researched. Currently, many teacher educators in different teacher education institutions in Shanghai are not identified as teacher educators. Therefore, their contribution to teacher education is not sufficiently valued and support for their professional development is limited. A better understanding of what identities teacher educators have is necessary in order to help define their diverse professional development needs and provide the support necessary for them. However, from the study's findings it became clear that 'identity' is often misunderstood as 'role and responsibility' in the Chinese context. Therefore, this study refocused more on exploring the roles and responsibilities, experiences, understandings, and beliefs that guide the professional learning and practices of teacher educators in three different types of institutional settings (university-based, college-based, and teacher training school-based) in Shanghai.

This study used a mixed-methods design, utilising both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently, using fifteen teacher educator interviews (nine individual interviews and six group interviews) and the online Teacher Educator Survey (n=252). All data were analysed in a systematic way. The discussion of the findings draws particularly on the policies on teacher educators in Shanghai, on research on the professional development of teacher educators across the world and on the theory of organisational culture that involves how individuals respond to policy in particular settings.

This study produced a number of key findings: the teacher educators in Shanghai were identified as an attractive professional group, in which the professionals had a strong sense of commitment and willingness to stay. The roles of Shanghai's teacher educators and the related expertise, career pathways and motivations, were determined by their different organisational cultures, which were affected by both national and regional policy directions. Teacher educators in Shanghai made strong demands on both the purposes of, and the approaches to, professional development and these were diversely manifested and were highly consistent with the different professional roles, policy directions and organisational cultures. Although Shanghai's teacher educators were provided with satisfactory 'physical support' for their professional development, the non-physical support did not seem sufficient. This study provides evidence of the complexities of teacher

educators' roles, responsibilities, and professional development, which may be of benefit for teacher educators, teachers' associations, leaders of teacher education institutions and policy makers internationally, as it highlights the importance of understanding and supporting the need to build, sustain and improve teacher education. At a theoretical level, the contribution of this study is a more nuanced understanding in terms of a model of teacher educators' roles; of the different impact of organisational culture on teacher educators depending on their institutional type; and of their expressed professional commitment and loyalty.

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Author's Declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this Dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Signature:

Printed name: CHAO QIU

Abbreviations

BNU	Beijing Normal University
CCCPC	Central Committee of the Communist Party of China
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
ECNU	East China Normal University
HEI	Higher Education Institution
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
NTTP	National Teacher Training Programme
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PD	Professional Development
PDS	Professional Development School
PISA	Program for International Student Assessment
PRC	People's Republic of China
PTTS	Putuo Teacher Training School
SISU	Shanghai International Studies University
SMEC	Shanghai Municipal Education Commission
SHNU	Shanghai Normal University
STTC	Shanghai Teacher Training Centre
STTS	Songjiang Teacher Training School
TC	Tianhua College of Shanghai Normal University
TTS	Teacher Training School
XC	Shanghai Xingjian College
XCEH	Xianda College of Economics and Humanities of SISU

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an introduction to this study, including a summary of the background to the research problem, the significance of the study, the research aims and questions, and the scope and limitations of the study.

1.2 Research Problem

With the rapid development of the Chinese economy and society in the twenty-first century, the country requires more and more high quality talent (State Council, 2010a; Ministry of Education, 2011a). This requires the learner to have greater breadth and depth of knowledge, which makes the teaching required more complex, and this in turn calls for an enhanced teaching workforce to ensure effectiveness in the classroom (Livingston, 2014). Teacher education plays a vital role here. Just as the quality of teachers affects the learning results of pupils (Linda Darling-Hammond, 2000; Murray, 2014), the quality of teacher educators affects the quality of teachers (Buchberger and Byrne, 1995; Korthagen, 2000; Koster et al., 2008). As a result, ensuring the development of the teacher educator workforce, and enhancing the professional development of teacher educators, is crucial.

In order to respond to this need, the Chinese central government published *The National Outline of Medium and Long-term Educational Reform and Development* (2010–2020) and announced that the government will rigorously select teachers, enhance teachers' quality and develop a dedicated, accomplished, well-structured, high-quality teaching workforce (State Council, 2010b). The Ministry of Education has indicated that the realisation of this target depends on the teachers who teach teachers, and not on what kind of curriculum resources are available, since these will ultimately be produced by teacher educators anyway (Ministry of Education, 2013b: 127). This means the government has recognised the significance of teacher education and has paid more attention to the enhancement of the

teaching workforce, meaning that teacher educators should be the most important resource for the realisation of these targets. *The Introduction to the Curriculum Standards for Teacher Education* uses a terminology which indicates that teacher educators are the most important curriculum resource for teacher education. This report emphasises the significance of the enhancement of the professional development of teacher educators:

There is no doubt that the school teachers' professional development must rely on high-quality teacher educators. Teacher educators should be well prepared and able to provide accomplished support for student teachers¹ and school teachers who have different levels of capacities, experience and needs. Meanwhile, teacher educators should have sufficient opportunities for their professional development, to improve their capacity to demonstrate effective teaching (Ministry of Education, 2013b: 127).

The above report calls for the teacher education institutions to develop a sense of responsibility for the enhancement of the teacher educator workforce, to provide various opportunities and platforms for teacher educators, and to lead teacher educators to improve themselves through different approaches and taking advantage of existing curriculum resources.

The Shanghai Municipal Education Commission (SMEC) (2011c) puts forward a proposal for teacher development for 2011–2015:

Shanghai needs to take the lead in reaching the transition target for basic education, to cultivate a large number of talented teachers who are able to adapt to the new environment, face challenges, and have a rich innovative spirit and practical capacities. Shanghai should speed up the professional development of teachers, promote teachers' professional ethics and professional proficiency, and build an excellent teaching workforce. (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2011c)

This therefore means that Shanghai needs to have a competent teacher educator workforce to ensure the achievement of these targets. However, at the moment, within Shanghai and in the whole country, there is an absence of a clear understanding of the professional roles

¹ The term 'student teacher' must be understood in the national Chinese context, where it means either an undergraduate or postgraduate student concurrently studying an academic subject and its pedagogy and also covers those who have never formally studied pedagogy but who have passed the Teacher Qualification Examination (which all candidates must pass). In this context, all successful candidates are known as Newly Qualified Teachers, on completion of a sixty day mentored induction course, normally studied part-time, while working as a teacher. Shanghai is unusual in having a course of one year, the details of which are discussed throughout this thesis, especially in Section 4.2.4. In this thesis, the use of the term 'probationer teacher' is limited to those on this one year course.

and responsibilities of teacher educators and of explicit planning and programmes for their professional development. This results in major conflict as the government expects improved teacher quality but does not have clear plans and measures for supporting the enhancement of the professional development of teacher educators and even simply 'leaves them alone'. Without a powerful teacher educator workforce, aiming to 'build an excellent teaching workforce' seems a meaningless statement. In addition, because there are no specific educational preparation programmes for becoming a teacher educator, teacher educators have to develop their professional knowledge and competencies as they work (Murray and Male, 2005). This means that, throughout their whole careers, they have to confront many challenges in the field of teacher education.

There are three dominant issues within Chinese teacher education. Firstly, there is a lack of a selection process for who can become a teacher educator (Wang, 2007). This results in the major issue that most teacher educators in initial teacher education lack school experience, while those in in-service teacher education lack systemic theoretical perspectives and therefore rely only on a repetition of their previous personal school experiences. Secondly, the institutions of teacher education organise one-off, collective, non-distinctive professional development activities for teacher educators (Kang, 2012; Li, 2012). This professional development model is not relevant or effective, as the individual professional development needs are overlooked. In Shanghai, although training projects have been established for university teachers, they are still not able to match the professional development needs of teacher educators, as the projects emphasise general knowledge and teaching skills in general. There is a need to develop specialised projects for teacher educators. Thirdly, there is a policy in Shanghai that relates to teacher educators' professional development but it appears insufficient for the number of teacher educators. Eraut (2007) indicates that, because there are different contexts, cultures, organisational frameworks and practices, there are differing individual needs and experiences and differing institutional demands, and so there should be different strategies and forms of professional development. Therefore, there is a need to consider the individual professional development needs of teacher educators in the different institutional contexts.

Teacher educators have always been considered an under-researched group (e.g. Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou, 2013; Murray, 2002; Murray, 2008), whose complex professional identities and many aspects of whose professional development have not yet

been fully explored. To be more specific, there has been very little research on the professional development of teacher educators (e.g. Smith, 2003; Lunenberg and Willemse, 2006; Koster et al., 2008; Smith, 2010; Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou, 2013). Publications about professional development needs seem to be out of date and limited to specific professional activities (e.g. Wilson, 1990; Ducharme, 1996; Smith, 2003; Korthagen, 2000), or limited to descriptions of training courses for novice teacher educators (e.g. Lunenberg, 2002; Smith, 2005). There is also very little research on the professional development of teacher educators which considers multiple institutional contexts, although there is some research which focuses on the professional development of teacher educators in pre-service teacher education (e.g. Koster et al., 2008; Boyd and Harris, 2010) and some on school-based teacher educators (e.g. O'Dwyer and Atli, 2015; van Velzen and Volman, 2009). The complexity of the contexts that teacher educators work in means that teacher educators, in different contexts, cultures, and organisational frameworks, have different roles and responsibilities, and different professional learning needs and experiences. Therefore, the professional development of teacher educators in different institutional settings is an under-researched area.

As China is a large country with a huge number of teacher educators who work in different contexts, the system of teacher education is complex. This study uses Shanghai as a case study because, as a provincial level region, a major centre of higher education and 'a leader in the reform of China', Shanghai has been commended for producing high-quality teachers and top performing students (OECD, 2010b). The educational system in Shanghai has received significant international attention in recent years, especially after the performance of Shanghai in the International Programme for Student Assessment (PISA) in 2009 and 2012 (OECD, 2010b; OECD, 2013). The distinctiveness of Shanghai motivated me to investigate how teacher educators who work in different contexts develop their knowledge and competencies so that they can 'produce high-quality teachers and top performing students', and how they define their professional roles and responsibilities in different contexts. This study focused on teacher educators in three diverse groups: university-based, college-based, and teacher training school-based.

In summary, as teachers who teach teachers, teacher educators play a vital role in teacher education, and those teachers in turn impact on pupils' outcomes. However, there is a policy silence and only limited research on the professional development of teacher educators in relation to what is happening in Shanghai. To meet the tensions and challenges

in today's society, it is crucial to identify and understand teacher educators' roles and responsibilities and professional development needs and provide targeted professional development.

1.3 Research Aims

This study explores the professional roles and responsibilities, experiences, understandings, and beliefs that guide the professional learning and practices of teacher educators in different institutional settings in Shanghai. This study specifically aims to explore how the teacher educators in different institutional settings in Shanghai define their professional roles and responsibilities and to investigate the current situation, experience and challenges in relation to the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai.

1.4 Research Questions

This study addresses the following two research questions: (a) what are the professional identities of teacher educators in Shanghai? (b) what are the opportunities and challenges for the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai?

The first research question aims to explore the professional identity, embracing roles and responsibilities, of teacher educators in different institutional settings in Shanghai. The second research question explores the current situation on the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai and what the opportunities of and challenges for the professional development of teacher educators are. The understanding of the responses to the first research question can be seen as a foundation for the understanding of the second research question. I agree with Cochran-Smith (2003), who states that the identity of teacher educators has to be defined before the professional development of teacher educators can be seriously considered. However, even taken as a starting point, the identity of teacher educators is a very general notion and it is difficult to tease out interactions between identity, roles and responsibilities². Mayer (1999) argues for an explicit focus on

² Section 8.4 of this study provides detailed theoretical discussion of this point (See p.200).

an educator identity as distinct from that of teachers' functional roles. There are many aspects of the role and remit of teacher educators that need to be considered before we can begin to understand and define teacher educators as a professional group and to identify their professional development needs.

1.5 Significance of the Study

Through the development of a better understanding of the professional development of teacher educators in different institutional settings, professional development opportunities could be more closely aligned with the needs of the groups of teacher educators (i.e. university-based, college-based and teacher training school-based). This study aims to make a contribution to understanding the impact of policy change on the roles and responsibilities of teacher educators and the implications for their professional development, and it is the first study to explore the professional development of teacher educators at a regional level in China. This study adds to the knowledge base regarding Shanghai's teacher education system and the professional development models for teacher educators who work in different institutional settings in Shanghai. In relation to the specific research aspects of the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai, this study investigates career motivation, professional commitment and loyalty, and the professional attraction and retention of Shanghai's teacher educators. This study offers a number of recommendations for stakeholders such as national and regional policymakers, local authorities, teacher education institutions, teacher educators and researchers.

1.6 Assumptions

It was assumed that teacher educators would participate without any form of interference and that the participants would answer the survey and interview questions with honesty. It was also assumed that the participants answered the questionnaire individually, without collaborating with other participants, and that all participants who answered the survey and interview questions had participated in professional development activities.

As a researcher, I have responsibilities to structure my methodology in such a way as to enable my participants to be best able to participate in my study. I have carefully considered the ethical issues that might cause a negative impact on their participation, and have ensured complete confidentiality, in order to safeguard the interests of participants. These efforts and further discussion of the ethical issues are contained in the Methodology chapter (See p. 77).

1.7 Research Design and Methods

Taking a pragmatic worldview for this study to use diverse approaches toward ‘whatever works’, and value both objective and subjective knowledge (Creswell and Clark, 2011a: 41), I adopted a mixed-methods approach which combined qualitative and quantitative methods. The quantitative research resulted in a wide range of findings, using both descriptive analysis and statistical tests. The qualitative research consisted of semi-structured interviews with 30 teacher educators who were carefully selected according to set criteria (See p. 90). This mixed-methods study involves the intentional collection of both quantitative and qualitative data and the combination of the strengths of each to answer the research questions. I combine the quantitative and qualitative data, maximising their strengths and minimising their weaknesses. Both data analyses occurred simultaneously, received equal priority, and were linked to each other at multiple points, as can be seen in the Methodology chapter (See p. 77).

1.8 Research Delimitations and Scope

The study was limited to the region of Shanghai, and teacher educators to those who worked in a general education field rather than a vocational education field. Teacher educators were limited to those who worked in pre-service and in-service teacher education institutions, where they were responsible for the professional preparation of nursery, primary and secondary school teachers. This study was limited to the perceptions of 3 national policymakers and of 252 teacher educator participants (including 30 interviewees out of the 252 respondents to the survey) in different teacher education institutions across

Shanghai.

1.9 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis is organised into eight chapters. This first chapter introduces the research topic – the professional identity, roles and responsibilities and professional development of teacher educators. Chapter 2 provides a basic context for teacher education in Shanghai. Chapter 3 provides a review of the related literature on the professional identity, roles and responsibilities and the professional development of teacher educators, and the theoretical and conceptual framework used for the study. Chapter 4 presents the research design and the mixed methods used. The data findings are presented and discussed in Chapters 5–6, and the interpretation of the findings are presented in Chapter 7. Conclusions and recommendations are presented in Chapter 8.

1.10 Chapter Summary

An enhanced teacher educator workforce is vital for preparing teachers to ensure effectiveness in the classroom. However, there is a lack of systematic consideration of the professional identity, roles and responsibilities and development of teacher educators in Shanghai. Therefore, teacher educators' professional roles and responsibilities and many aspects of their professional development should be explored according to the different contexts in which they work. This mixed methods study explores the professional roles and responsibilities and professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. The detailed context of this study is described in the next chapter.

Chapter 2 Context of Teacher Education in Shanghai

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a background to the education system and the teacher education system in Shanghai. An introduction to Shanghai's education system is given at the beginning of this chapter. After introducing briefly the historical development of teacher education in Shanghai (1949–2014), the current system of teacher education in Shanghai is outlined. The policies for Shanghai's teacher educators are introduced in the final section.

2.2 An Outline of Shanghai's Education System

This section provides an overview of the educational system in Shanghai, in which the systems of administrative management and schools are set. The structures of school education and educational finance are discussed, as they form a foundation for understanding the other sections and chapters.

2.2.1 Shanghai's Education Structure

Shanghai follows China's education system and is generally run by the central government in Beijing, which consists of both the main body and a set of non-governmental organisations. At present, basic education is prioritised by local government; higher education is mainly controlled by the central government and its 31 provincial governments; vocational education and adult education mainly rely on businesses and institutions, but are still under the supervision of the central government. Education in mainland China since 1949 has been strongly influenced by the education model of the former Soviet Union (Tan, 2012). This means that the system of education in China has emphasised knowledge transmission through teacher-centred, classroom-centred and text-centred means (Cai and Jin, 2010). However, from the 1980s onwards, educational

developments in Shanghai have differed from those in the other regions of mainland China. As one of the biggest international cities in the world, with over 23.8 million people (Shanghai Municipal Statistics Bureau, 2013), Shanghai has the most developed education system in China. Even if it is directly governed by the Chinese central government, Shanghai has been given a relatively high degree of autonomy to formulate, implement and experiment with curriculum reforms (Marton, 2006). This is perhaps due not only to Shanghai being the first city to implement the nine-year compulsory education policy in 1978, but also being the first region in China to be given the freedom to conduct its own national college entrance exam (known as *Gaokao*) in 1985.

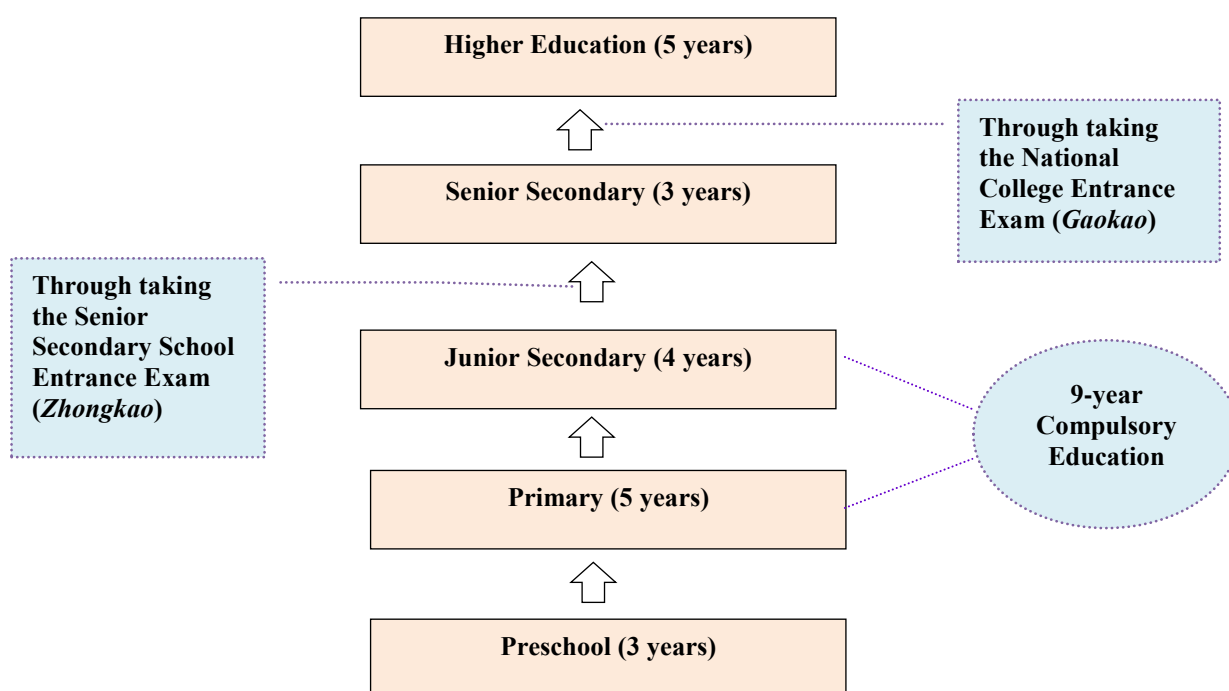


Figure 2.1 Educational system of Shanghai

Shanghai has a distinctive education system (see Figure 2.1) which adopts a ‘3-5-4-3’ model from preschool to senior secondary school (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2011a) differing from a ‘3-6-3-3’ model in the rest of China. Nurseries in Shanghai take children above three years of age for a period of three school years. In terms of basic education, all pupils have 5 school years of primary education, 4 school years of junior secondary school education as well as 3 years of senior secondary school education. After junior secondary level, students may proceed to senior secondary level (high school) where they study for another 3 years before sitting for the national college or higher education entrance exam (*Gaokao*) to qualify for higher education. There is a regional examination (known as *Zhongkao*) that distributes junior secondary school graduates to

two types of higher schools: general senior secondary schools and vocational high schools. Higher education could be in the form of university education (usually 4–5 years) or education at an institution of higher learning such as a professional technical college (usually 2–3 years) (Cheng, 2011).

The Shanghai Statistical Bureau (2014) shows that Shanghai has high student enrolment rates across all levels: 99.9% for the primary and junior secondary level and 97% for the senior secondary level, in 2013. Statistics also show that over 80% of the city's higher education age cohort are admitted into higher education in one way or another (compared to the national figure of 24%) (OECD, 2010b). Currently, there are 1,446 nurseries, in which 501,000 children are taught by 5,100 teachers; and 759 primary schools and 762 junior and senior secondary schools with about 593,513 students, taught by a total of around 52,349 full-time teachers (Shanghai Statistical Bureau, 2014). These figures mean that there are significant difficulties in preparing this huge number of teachers, which in turn requires Shanghai to prepare many high quality teacher educators to make education successful. There are in total 68 universities and other higher education institutions. Shanghai has a disproportionately high number of universities falling into two types. Four are '985 Project Universities' (accounting for more than one tenth of the national amount, see Glossary, p.222) and nine are '211 Project Universities' (accounting for just less than one tenth of the national amount, see Glossary, p.221) (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2013b). However, there are only two 'normal'³ universities (East China Normal University and Shanghai Normal University) and three colleges (Shanghai Xingjian College, Tianhua College and Shanghai Xianda College), which provide the majority of school subject teacher educators in Shanghai. Apart from these, the other institutions provide very little teacher education; for example, the Shanghai International Studies University has a small department which takes responsibility for English teacher education. Therefore, this creates great pressure for the institutions of teacher education in Shanghai in preparing school teachers.

³ The use of the word 'normal' in the Chinese context may need explanation. Any institution with this word in the title means that it is a teacher training institution (also see Glossary, p.222).

2.2.2 Shanghai's Educational Management and Administration

Under the governance of the Chinese central government, like the other regions of mainland China, Shanghai has two levels of government, namely the municipal government and the district/county governments. There are currently sixteen districts and one county (Chongming) in Shanghai. In terms of preschool and basic education, in addition to the five senior secondary schools⁴ that are directly governed by the Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, which is the educational agency of the municipal government, the other schools at different levels are governed by the district/county governments (or local authorities). The district/county education bureaus in turn report to SMEC (Tan, 2012). This system is known as a 'two-tier government, two tier management' model in China, which refers to the idea that the municipal government and the municipal education commission are in charge of the formulation of policies, supervision, evaluation and inspection of school reforms as well as of development in the various districts, while the local governments at district level have autonomy to design and implement specific education policy initiatives as well as to approve and bear the educational expenditure for schools in their districts.

Financial investment for education has been given priority in Shanghai. In 2012, Shanghai invested 7,000 billion Chinese Yuan (about £700 billion) on higher education, basic education and the encouragement of training staff in the sectors affiliated to the Municipal Education Commission (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2013b). Compared with 2012, financial investment in teacher education in 2013 in Shanghai represented an increase of 35% (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2013b). This reflects that Shanghai has recognised the significance of enhancing its teaching workforce in order to respond to the challenges from the educational changes and the increasing demand for high quality education from Shanghai's citizens. This increase in financial investment in teacher education should also provide a solid financial foundation for the professional development of teacher educators who work as university or college staff in higher education and those who work as in-service teacher educators (e.g. teaching researchers) in the teacher training schools.

⁴ These five senior secondary schools are: Shanghai High School, No.2 High School of East China Normal University, High School Affiliated to Fudan University, High School Affiliated to Shanghai Jiaotong University, and High School Affiliated to Shanghai Normal University. As the top five high schools, they accept prospective students from across Shanghai City and are governed by SMEC, which differs from the other high schools that only enrol prospective students within the district in which the school is located.

The model of ‘5-4-3’ basic education in Shanghai makes teacher education there different from the rest of China, because the higher education programmes for primary and secondary teacher education to adapt to cater to the needs of this 5 year primary and 7 year secondary education model. According to the ‘two-tier government, two tier management’ model, this is likely to create efficient education, and the increase in financial investment in education in Shanghai is conducive to the development of teacher education, because it creates solid administrative and financial foundations for the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai.

2.3 Historical Development of Teacher Education in Shanghai (1949–2014)

This section sets out a brief history of Shanghai’s teacher education according to the historical development that characterises the stages of Chinese teacher education generally. In this section some policies will be mentioned that are not discussed substantively, as they will be covered in the later section entitled ‘Policies for Shanghai’s Teacher Educators’ (See p.35).

In line with the development of Chinese education, Shanghai’s teacher education has experienced a zigzag process of development. During the period 1949–1965, in order to restore an orderly post-war teacher education system, Shanghai took initiatives that contributed to the development of teacher education. Unfortunately, teacher education was destroyed during the *Great Cultural Revolution* in the period 1966–1976. From 1978 onwards, China opened up in its era of *Reform and Openness*, during which teacher education gradually recovered and developed. Especially after the higher education institution movement in 1999, teacher education in Shanghai has been well developed.

2.3.1 Re-establishment (1949–1965)

In 1949, with the new regime in China, Shanghai’s teacher education was no different from that in the other regions that underwent changes at the end of the Civil War. In the autumn

of 1951, China held the first national conference on teacher education, which focused on two major issues: making a plan and establishing tasks for normal institutions at each level; and developing a reorganisation plan for secondary normal schools, normal colleges and universities. In the same year, the State Council published the decision on *reform of school education* which established the school system of normal education through the enactment of laws and decrees. The system specified that nursery teacher training schools trained nursery teachers, general secondary normal schools trained primary school teachers, and normal colleges and junior normal colleges trained secondary teachers. As a result, China established a fixed ‘three levels of teacher preparation’ (Gu, 2007: 18) so that initial teacher education was structured and stable, and in the charge of the ‘normal institutions’ rather than open to any institution that was able to train teachers. This system has influenced Chinese teacher education for a long time and Shanghai is no different. In these circumstances, the first normal university in Shanghai was established, named the East China Normal University (ECNU), and was based in two private universities (Daxia and Guanghua Universities) and a few departments from Fudan, Tongji and Hujiang Universities. At that time, ECNU was mainly in charge of training teachers for senior secondary schools in Shanghai. However, the capacity for school teacher provision in this single university in Shanghai could not meet the huge demands of Shanghai’s basic education. This resulted in huge challenges and pressure on teacher preparation for the government, and there was an urgent need to provide more school teachers for basic education.

In 1952, the Ministry of Education published the *Retooling Plan for National Higher Teacher Education Institutions*, in which the Ministry of Education asked each administrative region to establish 1–3 normal colleges for training senior secondary school teachers. Each province needed to develop a junior normal college for training junior secondary school teachers. In 1953, China held the first conference of higher education for teacher preparation, which announced that some junior normal colleges should be closed or merged and the number of general normal schools should be increased, as there was a significant lack of primary school teachers. In 1956, the Ministry of Education stated that the nation would rely on regional resources to develop higher teacher education. Only three national normal universities were governed by the Ministry of Education; the others were governed by the regional authorities. In this context, Shanghai Normal College was established in 1954 by the Shanghai government and focused on the training of school teachers, in particular junior secondary teachers and primary teachers; it was established to

complement the teacher provision of ECNU, as ECNU was unable to provide enough teachers by itself. Two years later, Shanghai Normal College was separated into Shanghai Number One Normal College and Shanghai Number Two Normal College to extend its capacity for training school teachers and to meet the increasing demands of basic education. Within four years, Shanghai had established two large normal universities for teacher preparation, which not only reflected the huge educational needs after the establishment of the People's Republic of China but also the emphasis by the State and Shanghai on teacher education and school education.

During this stage, Shanghai's school teachers were trained by five institutions, namely ECNU, Shanghai Number One Normal College, Shanghai Number Two Normal College, Shanghai Teacher College and Shanghai Physical Culture College. The ECNU focused on the training of school teachers and postgraduates for Eastern China, as it was a national university that was politically trusted by the State. Shanghai Number One and Two Normal Colleges were in charge of training the majority of school teachers for Shanghai. Shanghai Teacher College trained some student teachers and was in charge of training in-service teachers. Finally, Shanghai Physical Culture College focused on Physical Education teacher training. In general, these five teacher training institutions provided the entire teaching workforce for Shanghai, and guaranteed Shanghai's basic education. This three level model also laid a solid foundation for the current system of teacher education in Shanghai.

Unfortunately, this situation did not last long. During the period 1958–1961, with the strong impact of the *Great Leap Forward*, there was an economic and social campaign by the Communist Party of China. The campaign was led by Mao Zedong and aimed to transform the country rapidly from a feudal agrarian economy into a communist society through industrialisation and collectivisation. The campaign caused the Great Chinese Famine. Many local officials were tried and publicly executed for giving out misinformation. Within education circles, teacher education developed without guidance and, as a result, the number of normal schools rapidly increased. Some county-funded normal schools and People's Commune-funded normal schools emerged. These normal schools were built on a small scale with unworkable facilities (Gao, 1998). Therefore, at this stage, educational quality was reduced (Qu, 1999).

2.3.2 Setback (1966–1976)

During the period 1966–1976, the ‘*Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution*’, commonly known as the ‘*Cultural Revolution*’, was a social-political movement that took place in the People’s Republic of China. Set into motion by Mao Zedong, then Chairman of the Communist Party of China, its stated goal was to enforce communism in the country by removing capitalist, traditional and cultural elements from Chinese society, and by imposing Maoist orthodoxy within the Party. The Revolution marked the return of Mao Zedong to a position of power after the failed *Great Leap Forward*. The movement paralysed China politically, and significantly affected the country economically and socially. During this stage, many teachers were persecuted and killed, and most institutions for teacher education were closed. The Revolution caused immeasurable losses to China’s education system. Due to the obstacles from this big national campaign, teacher training institutions in Shanghai were closed from 1966 to 1971 (Wu, 1983). In 1972, Shanghai merged the ECNU, Shanghai Normal Colleges (Number One and Number Two), Shanghai Teacher College and the other two institutions into one institution, the Shanghai Normal University. Teacher training capacities were reduced by half and the quality of training also went down (Shanghai Normal University, 2014a). Because of this, the quantity of trained teachers could not meet the urgent demands of the schools and gave rise to a severe decline in the quality of school education. This situation lasted for more than ten years, which severely damaged the teacher education system and led to the persecution of teacher educators in Shanghai (Shanghai Normal University, 2014a).

2.3.3 Restoration and Development (1977–1997)

In 1976, the founder of the People's Republic of China, Mao Zedong, died, and the *Gang of Four*, who were the most powerful members of the radical political elite, convicted for implementing the harsh policies directed by Zedong Mao during the *Cultural Revolution* (1966–76), were overthrown. After the succession of Deng Xiaoping and the start of the economic reforms and openness that began with the de-collectivisation of the countryside, followed by industrial reforms aimed at decentralising government controls in the industrial sector, China’s society began to stabilise. Education in China was gradually restored. As a result, Shanghai’s teacher education entered a new stage of development. ECNU, Shanghai Normal College, Shanghai Teacher College and Shanghai Physical

Culture College all reopened to provide teacher education. More and more school teachers were trained for basic education in Shanghai and were able to meet the basic educational needs of Shanghai's citizens.

During this stage, the government focussed on improving the legal system. In contrast with the past, more and more laws and regulations as well as policies in relation to teacher education were made. For example, the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China (CCCPC) published the *Decision on Reform of the Educational System*, which raised the issue that the development of initial teacher education and in-service teacher education should be seen as the foundation for developing a national education system. In 1986, the 10th September was made Chinese Teachers' Day. This meant that the teaching profession was recognised as an important profession in society. Teachers' social status had finally been recognised.

In 1992, during its fourteenth conference, the CCCPC announced that education should have priority (Editorial Department of Chinese Educational Almanac, 1994). To implement this decision, in 1993 the CCCPC and the State Council published the *Outline of the Reform and Development of Chinese Education*, which set out policies and initiatives to further lift teachers' social status and improve teachers' working and learning conditions, as the hope of the nation depended on education and the hope of education depended on teachers (Editorial Department of Chinese Educational Almanac, 1994). After the publication of the *Outline*, the Ministry of Education and the other relevant departments published a series of legal statutes in relation to teacher education, such as the *Teacher Law of the PRC* (1993), the *Education Law of the PRC* (1995), the *Teacher Qualifications Act* (1995) and the *Award Regulations for Practitioners of Teacher Education* (1998). The achievement of this educational legislation in China showed that the State had provided a solid foundation of educational legislation which had long term implications for the development of teacher education in China (Zhu and Hu, 2009: 4). In addition to implementing the national laws, regulations and policies, Shanghai made its own policies for teacher education. In 1990, Shanghai published *Regulations for In-service Teacher Training* which focused on teacher induction, continuing professional development of primary, secondary and nursery teachers, and higher degrees in Education. This policy can be seen as the first document related to in-service teacher training in China.

An important point to note is that, in 1996, the ‘Iron Rice bowl’ policy of civil service jobs for life and free education ceased. From that point on, students and student teachers had to pay for their education and their jobs were not assured. This has clear implications for the demand for high quality teacher education.

2.3.4 New Development Period (1998–2014)

After the 1980s, the central government tried to improve professional standards for each profession, including the teaching profession. In 1998, the Ministry of Education published the *Education Revitalisation Action Plan for the 21st Century*, which announced that the State should enhance the teacher employment system in order to establish an excellent teacher work force in China (Editorial Department of Chinese Educational Almanac, 1999). This was an important step to put emphasis on the teaching profession by the central government. In 1999, the Ministry of Education established regulations that meant that initial teacher education was not only the responsibility of normal institutions, but of institutions of higher education as well (He, 2003). This meant that Chinese teacher education changed from a closed system to an open system (Qiu, 2014), and the providers of teacher preparation in China became diverse, which benefited the competition and cooperation between them. This movement not only impacted on the development of higher education, but also impacted on the development of teacher education. This also challenged teacher trainers whose role could now be played not only by the teacher educators who worked in normal institutions, but also by those who worked for the other teacher education providers.

During this stage, the government increased fiscal investment in education, which also strongly benefitted teacher education. By 2012, Chinese fiscal investment in education increased to 4% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in China (State Council, 2013). During the period 2010–2012, the government invested 550 million Yuan per year in the *National Teacher Training Programme* in order to train key teachers and school leaders across the country. This investment strongly pushed Chinese teacher education forward. As an important region of China, Shanghai benefitted from this investment. For example, in 2013 Shanghai invested more than 74.95 billion Chinese Yuan (equivalent to £7.495 billion) on education and 4,086 school teachers were trained by the *National Teacher Training Programme*. Meanwhile, in order to improve the regional balance of teacher

education and prompt the educational development of Central China and West China, the Ministry of Education ran the *Free Training Programme for Student Teachers* in 2007. This was financed by the central government and implemented by the five core national normal universities that were directly sponsored and governed by the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, 2007). ECNU and SHNU became involved in both of these national programmes. Up to 2014, ECNU had trained over 1, 200 school teachers to work in West China (Cao and Yan, 2014).

During this stage, the government attached much more attention to teacher education planning and published many documents that gave direction to teacher education in the new century. In 2004, the Ministry of Education published the *Action Plan for Invigorating Education 2003–2007* which pushed forward innovation in teacher education and constructed a flexible system of teacher education. As a part of the plan, the *National Teacher Education Network Alliance* was set up, which reorganised resources for teacher education around the country and developed a system for career-long learning for teachers (Ministry of Education, 2004). In 2010, the State Council published the *Outline of National Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010–2020)*, which further planned the new perspectives of Chinese education in the 21st century, emphasising the establishment of a higher quality of teacher work force (State Council, 2010b). During this stage, the government established a set of teacher standards to ensure the development of teacher education. In 2011, the Ministry of Education also published the *Curriculum Standards for Teacher Education* which standardised and directed the curriculum and created a solid foundation for further reforms in teacher education (Ministry of Education, 2011b). In 2012, the first set of *Teacher Professional Standards* was published, which consisted of standards for induction, assessment and promotion for three different kinds of teacher groups: nursery teachers, primary school teachers and secondary school teachers (Ministry of Education, 2012a). Meanwhile, the State Council and the Ministry of Education published *Improving the Teacher Work Force*, in which they set the high aim of building a skilled, reasonably structured, dynamic and professionally valued teacher work force by 2020 (State Council, 2012). In 2013, the Ministry of Education published *Professional Standards for Head Teachers in the Compulsory Education Stage* (Ministry of Education, 2013c). The government also made a number of practical changes to teacher education, such as career progression reforms, and the introduction of the M.Ed. and Ed.D. programmes.

The above policy-making on teacher education provides an explicit blueprint for the development of teacher education in China. There is considerable scope for Shanghai to form its own plans for teacher education. For example, following the national outline of educational plans, SMEC recently formulated the *Shanghai Outline of Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development (2010–2020)* (2010), the *Twelfth Action Plan for Teacher Development in Shanghai's Basic Education* (2011c), the *Teacher Professional Development Projects in Shanghai* (2012c), the *Notice of Implementing an Induction Scheme for Teachers in Higher Education in Shanghai* (2013a), and the *Announcement of a Professional Development School for Teachers and Normalised Training Bases for School Probationers* (2014a). These Shanghai policy documents are based on the national policy blueprint but have different policy intentions and implementation plans and more freedom to accommodate the situation of Shanghai's teacher education.

2.4 Current System of Teacher Education in Shanghai

Just as in the other regions of China, Shanghai's teacher education system involves three separate parts: initial teacher education, induction and in-service teacher education. The distinctiveness of Shanghai's teacher education system compared to the other regions of China is that Shanghai's teacher induction is compulsory, as Shanghai has been trusted as a pioneer by the Ministry of Education to conduct a pilot on teacher induction for the country as a whole (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2011b).

2.4.1 Initial Teacher Education

Initial teacher education in China is the responsibility of different providers including the normal institutions (such as normal universities, normal colleges and secondary normal schools, see Table 2.1 below) and institutions that are part of the non-normal series (such as comprehensive universities,⁵ comprehensive colleges and independent colleges, see Table 2.2 below). This originated from the higher education institution movement at the

⁵ A comprehensive university is an institution of higher education and research which grants academic degrees in a variety of disciplines and provides both undergraduate and postgraduate education. Details of the definition of 'Comprehensive University' can be seen in the Glossary (See p.220).

end of the 20th century in China. In 1999, the Ministry of Education in China announced that all qualified higher education institutions could get involved in teacher education and not just the normal institutions (Gu, 2007) (Also see p.18). After this, many non-normal higher education institutions participated in teacher education. Even though the number of these institutions is greater than the number of normal institutions, the number of the trained teachers from these institutions is smaller than the number from normal institutions. Therefore, normal institutions are still the most significant in the training of school teachers. Owing to the historical reasons explained above, teacher provision in Shanghai follows the tradition that most school teachers are trained by normal universities/colleges/schools, and the remaining small numbers by comprehensive universities/colleges, higher vocational colleges and independent colleges. The teacher education providers have differing governmental status with differing responsibilities for training school teachers.

	China	Shanghai
National	6 Normal universities: Beijing Normal University East China Normal University Northeast Normal University Central China Normal University Shaanxi Normal University Southwest University <i>*The above universities serve different zones of China: north, east, northeast, centre, northwest and southwest, respectively.</i>	East China Normal University (ECNU) Theoretically, ECNU serves six provinces and Shanghai City in the Zone of East China. In reality, the graduates from ECNU work across the country.
Provincial/ municipal	31 Normal universities <i>*Each provincial region has one normal university. In total there are 22 provinces, 4 municipal cities and 5 autonomous regions.</i>	Shanghai Normal University (SHNU) SHNU trains school teachers for Greater Shanghai consisting of 16 districts and 1 county.
Local	Normal colleges Normal schools <i>*Not fixed, quantity of the institutions depends on the population and training needs in particular areas.</i>	

Table 2.1 Initial teacher education providers in China and Shanghai (Normal Series)

Table 2.1 shows the differences between the three levels of normal institution for the majority of teacher preparation in China, including the six national normal universities that train teachers for particular geographical zones and the regional normal universities that prepare teachers for each of the 31 provincial regions, as well as some local normal colleges and schools that are governed and sponsored by local authorities and train teachers for local schools.

In Shanghai, there are two normal universities, ECNU, which is the only national normal university in the zone, and SHNU, which is the regional normal university. They both are seen as comprehensive universities, but they continue to have a significant role in training teachers. In SHNU the programmes of teacher education make up half of the university programmes and more than 70% of school teachers and school leaders are trained by SHNU (Shanghai Normal University, 2014b).

	China	Shanghai
Comprehensive University	Provides higher education, has authority to award bachelor and higher degrees in comprehensive subjects, usually has research facilities.	Shanghai International Studies University (SISU) SISU has a taught programme of English Education in the School of International Education, but on a very small scale.
Comprehensive College	Provides higher education, has authority to award college degrees in comprehensive subjects (some have authority to award bachelor degrees).	
Higher Vocational College	Provides higher education, has authority to award college degrees in vocational subjects (some of them have authority to award bachelor degrees)	Xingjian College (XC) XC trains nursery teachers and teachers of the arts for Shanghai.
Independent College	Private college normally affiliated to a comprehensive university.	Tianhua College of SHNU (TC) TC trains nursery, primary teachers and teachers of the arts for Shanghai. Xianda Humanities and Economics College of SISU It trains nursery and primary teachers and teachers of the arts for Shanghai.

Table 2.2 Initial teacher education providers in China and Shanghai (Non-Normal Series)

There are four types of non-normal higher education institution which provide programmes in teacher training in China: comprehensive universities, comprehensive colleges, higher vocational colleges and independent colleges (See Table 2.2). Shanghai has only one comprehensive university (Shanghai International Studies University, SISU), only one higher vocational college (Xingjian College, XC) and two independent colleges (Tianhua College of SHNU, TC; and Xianda Humanities and Economics College of SISU) that are part of the non-normal series but undertake teacher training programmes. Apart from SISU, the other three institutions all provide pre-school education. They train most pre-school teachers in Shanghai while ECNU and SHNU train most primary and secondary school teachers.

As previously stated, the providers of initial teacher education in Shanghai are different from those in the rest of China. They have different levels, tasks, targets, and missions set by government regarding teacher education. Therefore, there is a need for investigation into the potential differences in terms of the professional development needs of teacher educators. For the ‘normal series’, teacher educators in SHNU undertake the task of training more than 70% of the school teachers and leaders for Greater Shanghai (Shanghai City and its surrounding suburbs) (Shanghai Normal University, 2014b), while teacher educators in ECNU undertake the task of training teachers for the whole nation (East China Normal University, 2014). Therefore, teacher educators in these two levels of normal university in Shanghai have different professional roles and responsibilities, and this in turn results in different professional development needs for these teacher educators. For the ‘non-normal series’, the structure of teacher education providers is more complex as this series includes both a comprehensive university and comprehensive colleges, within both the public sector and the private sector. There are not only differences in tasks and targets among the non-normal series, but also differences between the normal series and the non-normal series. Hence, the institutional providers of teacher education in Shanghai are complex and multiple, which implies that the professional roles and responsibilities of teacher educators and the professional development needs of teacher educators in Shanghai may be complex and multiple too. This issue is investigated in this study.

There are four levels of training programme provided by different institutions in China: *Zhongzhuan* (Secondary), *Dazhuan* (College certificate), *Benke* (University degree) and *Yanjiusheng* (Postgraduate). Generally, school teachers can be trained in a secondary school in China but not in Shanghai. The providers of initial teacher education in Shanghai

only offer the latter three levels. This means the secondary qualification for school teachers has become extinct, and schools in Shanghai normally only accept school teachers with a university or postgraduate degree. Therefore, Shanghai's school teachers normally have a higher level of teaching qualification than those in the rest of China. This in turn creates higher requirements for professional proficiency for teacher educators in Shanghai.

Teacher education in Shanghai is governed by SMEC and supervised by the Ministry of Education, which means the main teacher education system is similar to that in the other regions of China, although teacher education in Shanghai has many distinctive characteristics. Owing to the issues of *Hukou* (Shanghai residency status) (See Glossary, p. 220), immigrant teachers have difficulties in finding a job in the public schools in Shanghai. As a result, most school teachers in Shanghai are natives who studied and then worked there. This is likely to create differences in the professional roles and responsibilities of teacher educators in different teacher education providers. For example, unlike the regional providers of initial teacher education, as national teacher education providers, teacher educators in ECNU may need to consider differences in the educational structure between Shanghai and the rest of China to assist the student teachers who come from the different regions.

Although Shanghai has implemented a number of initiatives for integrating pre-service and in-service teacher education (e.g. some pre-service teacher educators participate in in-service teacher education, and some in-service teacher educators participate in pre-service teacher training), these systems still remain separate, as there is a lack of integrated and structured teacher education programmes. This implies that Shanghai's teacher educators have several roles and responsibilities; for example, as stated, some senior university teacher educators may act as experts in training school teachers in the school sector. This results in a fluidity of professional roles and responsibilities of teacher educators, and in diversity in the professional development needs of teacher educators; both of which need to be deeply understood.

Shanghai has launched three main teacher training programmes for Master level teacher provision, namely, the '4+1+2 Model', the '3+3 Model', and the '4+2 Model'. The '4+1+2 Model' was established by ECNU in 2006. In this programme, after a four-year undergraduate course in a particular subject, student teachers undertake one year of practice in schools, and then participate in a two-year postgraduate course before working

in a school. Since 2007, SHNU uses a ‘3+3 Model’ of Master level teacher training (Jiao, 2007). Student teachers spend 3 years in undergraduate study, and the second 3 years in a postgraduate programme in teacher education. In addition, SMEC, ECNU and SHNU have jointly conducted an experiment on a ‘4+2’ model since 2011. In this model, student teachers take a four-year undergraduate study before they take a further two years’ postgraduate study, in which they spend one year in teacher education courses and the last year on placement. The advantage of these models is that initial teacher education is linked to teaching practice, and is coherently supported by the partnership of universities, local authorities and schools. Although these models are still on trial, and the number of trained teachers is still small, they have brought great challenges which teacher educators in these institutions have to meet by changing their teaching methods and techniques, and by improving their knowledge base.

Length	6 months	6 months
Workplaces	Candidates work in the employing schools.	Candidates practice teaching and are mentored by the base schools designated by SMEC.
Mentors	A candidate teaches in the classroom and is mentored by a senior teacher who is normally a teacher of the same subject as the candidate.	Each candidate is supported by two mentors. One is a senior teacher in the specific subject; another is a teacher who focuses on classroom and candidate routine management.
Teaching tasks	Fixed teaching tasks, but reduced to half in contrast with the years before 2012.	No fixed teaching tasks.
Training content	<p>The training content follows the outline of teacher induction set by SMEC rather than the candidate doing what he/she wants to do. The training content for the candidates consists of four sections: teaching practice, teaching research, classroom management, and teacher ethics and commitments. Each section has many explicit indicators and tasks (i.e. there are 4 sections and 18 items in the policy document that can be seen as the standards for teacher induction – <i>Shanghai standardised training system for School Teachers</i> which was published by SMEC in 2011)</p> <p>* ‘School teachers’ here include nursery, primary and secondary school teachers.</p>	
Threshold	A NQT must pass assessment and register after his/her one-year induction.	

Table 2.3 One-year probationer teacher induction scheme in Shanghai

The above table was adapted from the Shanghai standardised training system for School Teachers (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2011b).

The information provided above shows how it has come about that initial teacher education in Shanghai is undertaken by the higher teacher education institutions, which have formed

a distinctive structure and model of teacher education. Because of the complexity and diversity of the initial teacher education system and the institutional contexts, teacher educators in higher education in Shanghai face many challenges.

2.4.2 Induction for Probationer Teachers

There is a lack of a national induction scheme for probationer teachers in China, but there are many voluntary induction schemes carried out by different regional or local authorities. As a pioneer of Chinese educational reforms, Shanghai was trusted by the central government to conduct an experiment with a teacher induction scheme as a model for the whole country (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2013b). Thus, this compulsory teacher induction scheme can be seen as a distinctive element in Shanghai's teacher education.

In accordance with the requirements of the Shanghai Municipal Education Commission (2013a), a probationer school teacher must take a one-year induction course before registering to be a newly qualified teacher (NQT). A NQT should have a college degree and a teacher qualification in a certain subject. They should have succeeded in completing a one-year induction scheme and have passed the assessment (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2011b). Whether the candidate has taken the 'concurrent model' in which they study a certain school subject and its pedagogy, and obtain a university degree, or has followed one of the above models, they need to attend this one-year induction scheme in Shanghai. The relevant regulations in detail can be seen in Table 2.3, above.

The induction scheme for probationer teachers in Shanghai is provided by both employing schools and base schools.⁶ The probationers are trained for six months in each type of school. The mentors of probationer teachers are selected from school teachers who have rich teaching experience by the local education authority under the supervision of SMEC. These mentors in school-based teacher education frequently have little formal connection with initial teacher education and the continuing professional development of school

⁶ 'Base school' is another name for 'Professional Development School' (PDS) in Shanghai, but it is different from the PDS in the US. A base school is a school that not only undertakes regular school education but also takes responsibility for student teachers' placements and probationer teachers' induction. The detailed definition of 'base school' can be seen in the Glossary (See p.220).

teachers. There is no formal training for these mentors in relation to the mentoring of the probationers. Therefore, there are challenging gaps both between initial teacher education and the induction scheme, and between the induction scheme and the career-long professional learning phase of continuing professional development for school teachers. These gaps challenge mentors to define their roles and responsibilities in order to help their trainees transform from a student teacher to a probationer teacher and connect with their career-long professional learning phase. This requires these mentors to extend their roles and responsibilities beyond their current ones, redefine their professional development needs, and select appropriate professional development approaches and activities according to their professional development needs so that they can cater for their trainees' professional learning needs.

2.4.3 In-service Teacher Education

In 1949, China set up an in-service teacher education system for which school teacher training institutions outside the higher education institutions, such as teacher training schools, were responsible. In particular, from the 1980s onwards, school teachers were not only required to be involved in school-based teaching activities, but also in the regular teacher training provided by teacher training schools (some regions give these the title of institutes of teacher education) (Wang, 2007). In addition, key teachers and school leaders had opportunities to attend provincial/municipal or national training projects. In the past, institutes of teacher education were divided into two levels: provincial and city level. They were in charge of leading and directing the sub-organisations (such as district/county level teacher training schools) as well as training key teachers and school leaders within the region. Since the 1990s, in order to integrate pre-service and in-service teacher education and reorganise educational resources, most institutes of in-service teacher education and teacher training schools have either merged into universities or colleges, or updated themselves as independent teacher colleges, which provide initial teacher education rather than in-service teacher education. Most of the teacher training schools, however, still focus on in-service teacher training (Zhu and Hu, 2009). Currently, the providers of in-service teacher education in Shanghai can be divided into four levels: national, provincial, district/county, and school level (See Table 2.4 below).

Level	Programme	Provider	Governance
National level	National Teacher Training Programmes	Department of Teacher Education	Ministry of Education
Provincial/Municipal level	Provincial Teacher Training Programmes	Department of Human Resources (Operated by Shanghai Teacher Training Centre and the Institute of Teaching Research of the SMEC)	SMEC
District/County level	Regular Training at district level	The 17 Teacher Training Schools	The 17 local educational authorities
School level	Teaching Research Activities	Teaching Research Group/Lesson Preparation Group	The schools

Table 2.4 Institutional system of in-service teacher education in Shanghai

National level teacher professional development

The Ministry of Education provides many national programmes focusing on training key teachers and school leaders. An example is the best known programme, the ‘*National Teacher Training Programme*’, which was launched in 2010 by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Finance and aimed to train school teachers, especially rural school teachers and a number of ‘seed teachers’, to play a key role in influencing all the other school teachers (Ministry of Education, 2010). This programme includes a demonstration project for primary and secondary school teachers training and the project for West and Central rural teachers training. The central government contributed 550 million Chinese Yuan per year to this programme during the period 2010–2012 (Ministry of Education, 2013a). However, not all school teachers are trained by the national teacher training programme; instead they are trained by particular training relevant to the different types of candidate, such as key teachers, teacher trainers, school leaders, and teachers in rural areas. Thus, the national training programmes do not aim to train all teachers across the country. For Shanghai, in 2012, 10 administrators from the local authorities, 40 head teachers and 728 school teachers were trained by the National Teacher Training Programme (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2013b). As a small number of teacher educators were selected from the university-based and school-based institutions by the Ministry of Education as ‘experts’ in teacher education to train the key teachers and school leaders, there are some emerging problems that remain to be investigated, such as how these

teacher educators are trained, and who supports the professional development of these teacher educators.

Provincial/Municipal level teacher professional development

The education commissions of the provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities are directly governed by the central government. They have their own departments of teacher education. Generally, they have two sections: the provincial-level teacher training centre or institute of teacher education; or/and the institute of teaching research. Their purposes are the training of teachers and the directing and managing of teachers' sub-institutions, such as teacher training schools. Some provinces have institutes of teacher education rather than teacher training centres. They are both responsible for training key teachers and school leaders as well as assisting the implementation of the National Teacher Training Programme in their own regions. The provincial institutes of teaching research are in charge of directing their sub-institutes of teaching research at city, district and county level, and training key teachers and school leaders in their regions. Currently, each province, autonomous region and municipality has a provincial-level institute of teaching research.

The Shanghai Institute of Teaching Research is a department of SMEC which has the following tasks: responsibility for the reform of the curriculum in Shanghai; teaching management, research and direction; and the supervision, assessment, feedback and direction on education quality (Institute of Teaching Research of Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2013). Another provincial teacher training and management organisation in Shanghai is the Shanghai Teacher Training Centre, which is a municipality level in-service teacher training centre for the management and training of school leaders and key teachers assigned by SMEC (Shanghai Teacher Training Centre, 2014). These two organisations can be seen as a bridge between SMEC and the local education authorities, undertaking much management work on teacher education and directing teacher educators in teacher training schools. Some of the staff of the Shanghai Institute of Teaching Research are mentors of teaching researchers in the teacher training schools. This means that their selection and professional proficiency impact highly on the professional development of in-service teacher educators. However, there are some challenges for this mentoring system for the teaching researchers. The mentors of the teaching researchers in the Shanghai Institute of Teaching Research have similar school experience to their

mentees while most of the mentors from the Shanghai Teacher Training Centre lack teaching experience. Therefore, it is difficult to see any significant impact that the mentors in these institutions can make on the teaching researchers.

District/County level teacher professional development

In China, there are city, district and county level institutes of teaching research. Generally, these are on the same administrative level and they act as independent organisations, as institutes of teacher education or as a teacher training school for the professional development of teachers. Each subject area has at least one teaching researcher, but some subjects, such as Chinese, English and Mathematics, have two or three teaching researchers in some large regions. For example, Mathematics in some cities of Jiangsu Province has three teaching researchers: one primary teaching researcher, one junior secondary school teaching researcher, and one senior secondary school teaching researcher. The teaching researcher not only needs to go to schools and observe teachers' teaching, offering direction and feedback, but also needs to write exam papers and undertake the further assessment of examinations for the pupils within a region. These tasks form the main part of the teaching researchers' work and can also be seen as part of their own professional development. In fact, these teaching researchers are advisors of subjects, but sometimes they conduct research and support the teaching research of school teachers.

Shanghai has 17 teacher training schools: 16 district level teacher training schools and 1 county level teacher training school, of which 8 teacher training schools are located in the core city and the remaining 9 are located in suburbs. Each district /county has one teacher training school for managing, organising and training teachers. Since the regular work of the teacher training schools is directed and managed by the Institute of Teaching Research of SMEC, a teacher training school is actually a sub-institute. As stated above, teaching researchers, who work in teacher training schools, are accountable for training teachers, observing classes and giving feedback, writing exam papers and assessing the results for schools within the districts. These teaching researchers are the in-service teacher educators who support the professional development of school teachers in Shanghai. Most of them are selected from schools. Therefore, they have rich school experience, commonly have a senior academic title, and act as key teachers (i.e. 'subject experts') in specific subject areas. This means they are an important teacher educator group and a bridge between the

(local educational) authority, school, teaching study groups and school teachers, acting in both administrative and professional roles for teacher education. The professional development of teaching researchers determines the professional development of school teachers and in turn influences teaching in the classroom. However, it seems that there is considerable confusion in relation to the teacher researchers' professional roles and responsibilities on the part of the local education authorities, school teachers, and teaching researchers themselves. This is because teacher researchers have professional positions in the local education authorities which means they are not public servants, but they do many administrative tasks just like public servants while also acting as teaching researchers. Therefore, teaching researchers' professional development needs may need to be re-defined.

School level teacher professional development

The teaching research groups (based on peer observation) and the lesson preparation groups are teachers' professional learning communities in school. Teaching research groups are for teachers in a school within the same subject but across all grades, and lesson preparation groups are small teacher learning groups in which teachers in a school in the same grade and subject work together on lesson preparation (See Glossary, p.221). Generally, the senior staff, who have relatively influential teaching accomplishments and rich teaching experience, lead the groups. School-based teaching discussion is the most popular form of activity for school teachers. Each school has teaching research groups and lesson preparation groups. Generally, each subject has one teaching research group comprised of many lesson preparation groups, one for each grade. Teaching research groups are a way to organise the regular teaching discussions, in which all teachers within the same subject are involved. Each school grade in each subject has one lesson preparation group. For example, a teaching research group in mathematics in a junior secondary school may have 3 lesson preparation groups including those for grade 7, grade 8 and grade 9. The teaching research activities are normally organised once or twice per month in a teaching research group, and normally once per week in a lesson preparation group. Teaching research groups frequently discuss teaching and direct the activities of lesson preparation groups. These groups present both potential opportunities and challenges for school teachers, as well as for teacher educators. For example, teaching

researchers are relatively likely to play a significant role in these groups. As they are the core leading experts in the subject within the region, whether they have positive and strong commitment and professional proficiency will determine the quality of the professional learning of school teachers. Therefore, the enhanced professional development of the teaching researcher group is important for the professional learning communities of school teachers.

SMEC has completed three sessions of the project (known as *Shuangming Gongcheng*) for expert teachers and head teachers. The project is frequently led by a senior expert and directed by a supervision group comprised of the senior university teachers and the Special Grade Teachers⁷ (See Glossary, p.223). This group undergo many formal and informal training activities, such as courses on advanced ideas of teaching and pedagogy, teaching observation, self-reflection and peer interaction. Since 2008, there have been 818 school leaders and key teachers who have been trained through this project (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2013b). Following this project, SMEC launched a project for shadowing head teachers and teachers in which many school teachers and school leaders are sent overseas. In 2008, nine head teachers and expert teachers were sent to California (Xu and Ji, 2011). In 2012, Shanghai organised training for 20 teacher trainers in Finland, and has sent 20 head teachers and 20 school teachers to California to shadow head teachers and teachers (this shadowing is known as *Yingzixiaozhang* and *Yingzijiaoshi*, respectively) (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2013b). These measures undertaken by SMEC show that Shanghai has paid attention to the impact on knowledge and the transformation of experience which is likely to be a more effective and efficient way to form a new knowledge base. These two projects remind us, on the one hand, that Shanghai emphasises expert resources and learning from experiences worldwide; and on the other hand, that Shanghai is cultivating school-based ‘seed’ teacher educators (similar to Chartered Teachers in Scotland) to influence and enhance the existing teaching workforce. This model suggests that Shanghai teacher education is moving to a more school-based approach and a wider world view. This model might thus lead to more diverse professional roles and responsibilities for in-service teacher educators, and make professional roles and responsibilities change from a relatively static state to a fluid state. This also calls for research to redefine the professional development needs of teacher educators, a gap which this thesis attempts to fill.

⁷ ‘Special Grade Teacher’ is a title for expert school teachers who demonstrate outstanding teaching skills in specific subjects, and act as mentors for their colleagues on teaching, research and ethical matters (Ministry of Education, 1993), see the Glossary (p. 223).

2.4.4 Management of Teacher Education in Shanghai

Shanghai has 124,700 school staff including 48,100 primary school teachers and 51,800 secondary school teachers (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2013b). As stated above, most school teachers were trained in normal universities and other types of higher education institutions in Shanghai. In-service school teachers are trained and managed by different levels of institutions, including national, provincial, district, and school. The primary measures for the management of teacher education in Shanghai include professional development schools or base schools, newly-qualified teacher registration, and a Credit Bank for the professional development of teachers, all described below.

Base schools for Teachers

As stated above, Shanghai has implemented a one-year induction scheme since 2012, having trialled it in 2011. From 2012 to 2014, Shanghai established 84 professional development schools/base schools for teachers' professional development, probationer teachers' teaching practice and student teachers' placements (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2012a; Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2014a). 'Base school' is another description for 'Professional Development School' (PDS) in Shanghai, but it is slightly different from the PDS in the US. A base school is a school that not only undertakes regular school education, but also takes responsibility for student teachers' placement and probationer teachers' induction. The details of the definition of 'base school' can be seen in the Glossary (See p.220). In base schools, a number of expert school teachers and university teachers are employed as mentors of probationer teachers. The school teachers assess the performance of the probationer teachers, and finally the school will provide a certificate for those probationer teachers identified as performing to a satisfactory standard. Probationer teachers are not permitted to have full registration until they have received this certificate. This initiative highlights a transformation from theory to practice, the importance of practical knowledge, and knowledge in/for practice. This suggests that teacher educators – both Higher Education Institution (HEI)-based and school-based – should enhance practice-led and transformation-led professional development to confront the challenges of the changing work environment.

Newly Qualified Teacher Registration

In contrast with the system in other regions in mainland China, Shanghai's newly qualified teacher registration scheme is pioneering. In the other regions of China, teacher registration takes place after a sixty day induction, which is a voluntary teacher training project for transition from a student teacher to a school teacher. In Shanghai, a probationer teacher has to complete a one-year induction scheme and be qualified by a contracted school and the local authority in order to be registered as a newly qualified teacher (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2012b). This is a baseline that a probationer teacher must meet before teaching in a classroom. As registration is one of the important stages of the career of a newly qualified teacher, this sets the foundation for establishing a continuum of career-long professional learning for school teachers.

Credit Bank for In-service School Teachers

Every teacher in Shanghai has an account in a 'Credit Bank' for his/her career-long professional development, which is planned by SMEC, is implemented by all the district governments and is in practice in all the schools. All school teachers must complete 36 credits (equal to 360 class hours) in a cycle of five years. The credits for the 5 years of training consist of credits from the different courses that the candidates have completed. These 36 credits consist of 12 credits for ethics and values courses, 14 credits for knowledge and skills courses, and 10 credits for courses of practical experience (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2012). Half the credits are for school-based practical experience, 30–40% for knowledge and skills provided by the teacher training schools in 17 districts across Shanghai, and 10–20% for ethics and values provided by SMEC or the Ministry of Education.

Apart from the credit requirements for general teachers described above, where teachers have to stick rigidly to each percentage, the teachers who have extra roles have extra credit requirements over and above the 36 credits in 5 years, as described in this quote:

Secondary school teachers with a senior title need to have 54 credits; heads of schools need no fewer than 24 credits for off-job training (excluding first year head teachers); new heads of schools need no fewer than 30 credits training in a headship qualification;

class advisers need no fewer than 3 credits training in special topics; teacher trainers need no fewer than 7.2 credits training; new teachers in their internship year need no fewer than 12 credits training in class observation. Ten class hours can be converted into one credit (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2012).

In Shanghai's Credit Bank model, the weighting for school-based practical experience has been increased. This suggests that teacher educators, in particular those who work in higher education, should emphasise their school experience.

2.5 Policies for Shanghai's Teacher Educators

This section provides a brief introduction to both national policies and Shanghai's policies on teacher educators. To provide a deeper understanding of the policies that impact on the professional roles and responsibilities and development of teacher educators in Shanghai, this section includes the perspectives of two teacher education experts that I interviewed as part of this study. A discussion of my research approach and design is in the methodology chapter and explains in more detail my selection of experts to interview (See p.94). The perspectives of the policy experts interviewed are a crucial part of the context of teacher education in Shanghai that underpins the following study and for that reason I include them in the policy context in this section. Professor Mingyuan Gu works in BNU, and is the Chair of the Committee on Teacher Education and the former Chair of the China Education Society. Professor Qiquan Zhong works in the Institute of Curriculum and Instruction in ECNU, he was the leader of the research team for the Curriculum Standard for Teacher Education and the leading expert on the National New Curriculum Revolution at the beginning of the 21st century. Professor Gu and Professor Zhong focused on national policies on teacher education.

2.5.1 National Policies for Teacher Educators

The expansion of economic globalisation, the revolution in information and communication technology and students' diverse needs have greatly increased the complexity of the teaching profession. In order to respond to these challenges, the *National*

Outline of Medium and Long-term Educational Reform and Development (2010–2020) announced that the government should pay more attention to teacher education (State Council, 2010b). The Ministry of Education emphasised that teachers play a significant role in the realisation of this target, and that teacher educators play a significant role in the development and growth of school teachers (Ministry of Education, 2013b: 127). The *Introduction to the Curriculum Standards for Teacher Education* suggested that teacher educators are the most important resource for teacher education, and emphasised the importance of the enhancement of teacher educators' professional development. This document also suggested that finance for the professional development of teacher educators should be an important part of the governmental budget for teacher education, as planning, investment and organisation have many implications for the development of teacher education institutions and the long-term growth of learners. The policy, issued in 2013, can be regarded as the new starting point at which the Chinese government began to pay more attention to teacher educators and their professional development.

The National Medium and Long-term Plan for Development of Talents (2010–2020) announced that by enhancing teacher quality in higher education, focusing on professional development of beginning and mid-career teachers, and developing innovation teams, the State should establish a talent team that is adaptable to meet the needs of improving higher education quality (Ministry of Education, 2011a). In 2012, the Ministry of Education formulated a policy document for the professional development of teachers in higher education with the other five departments,⁸ called *Strengthening the Creation of Beginning Teachers in Higher Education*. It indicated that 'beginning teachers in higher education are crucial, with connections to the future of national higher education development, talent education, and education' (Ministry of Education et al., 2012). Again this indicates a good starting point for the exploration of the enhancement of the professional development of teacher educators.

The Ministry of Education published a policy document in 1996 on the continuing professional development of teacher educators in higher education. The policy announced that all teachers in higher education should be trained by their institutions in different ways and to different standards according to their professional roles. Assistant lecturers need to participate in training courses in relation both to basic knowledge and to skills of teaching

⁸ The other five departments are the Central Organisation Department of the Communist Party of China, the Propaganda Department of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China, the National Development and Reform Commission, the Ministry of Finance, and the Human Resources and Social Security Department.

and research; lecturers need to focus on augmenting and extending their basic knowledge and skills; associate professors need to be familiar with and master the latest information in their subject and enhance their research levels through teaching and research practice; and professors need to strengthen their academic level through high level teaching and research work (Ministry of Education, 1996). This policy document can be seen as the only document that the Ministry of Education has published on the professional development of university teachers. As teacher educators in initial teacher education are teachers in higher education, this policy document can also be applied to teacher educators in universities and colleges. However, as this policy was published about two decades ago, it has become outdated, and does not meet the professional development needs of teacher educators in the new century. In particular, it calls for all university teachers at all levels to engage in research; this inevitably overlooks the diversity and complexity of the professional roles and responsibilities of university teachers, as well as of teacher educators in higher education.

In summary, there are no specialised policies for teacher educators in China. The policies discussed above are related to the professional development of university teachers in higher education, in particular to that of beginning university teachers in higher education. In these policy documents, they are called university teachers rather than teacher educators.

2.5.2 Shanghai's Policies for Teacher Educators

In a similar way to the national policymaking, Shanghai has not developed any specific policies for the professional development of teacher educators. The policies that have been developed in Shanghai in relation to teacher educators are the *University Teacher Professional Development Project*, *Induction for Teachers in Higher Education*, and *Professional Development for Teachers in Independent Higher Education Institutions*. The teacher educators I refer to in this section are teachers who work in the above university sector and independent colleges in Shanghai.

University Teacher Professional Development Project

This is an initiative in response to *The Shanghai Outline of Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development* (2010–2020) which called for the University Teacher Professional Development Project (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2010). In 2011, Shanghai developed a plan for implementing the project (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2012c). There are four sub-projects on the professional development of university teachers (See Table 2.5).

Sub-project	Aims	Requirements	Grants/per person	No. by 2012
Domestic Visiting Scholar Project	Selects beginning and middle-aged key teachers in higher education to visit the national higher level universities.	3 year or more deputy professor experience; No more than 40 years old.	£4–5 K	284
International Visiting Scholar Project	Selects beginning and middle-aged key teachers in higher education to visit international higher level universities.	3 year or more teaching experience; Good foreign language communication skills.	£5–15 K	555
Chanxueyan Project	Encourages teachers in higher education to get involved in academic research and practice, to gain work experience in factories, companies and institutes.	Teach or research in a discipline, but not have any professional practice experience in this field.	£5 K	701
Beginning Teachers Training Project	Trains beginning teachers in higher education.	Less than 2 years' working experience; No more than 35 years old; Lecturer or below.	£4–5 K	753

Table 2.5 Sub-projects for the professional development of university teachers in Shanghai

This University Teacher Professional Development Project emphasises the enhancement of the professional development of beginning and middle-aged university teachers, and adopts different approaches to meet their different types of professional development needs. However, Shanghai has about 40 thousand university teachers, and only 5% of them were trained by 2012 (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2013b). In these circumstances, this project was not able to meet the professional development needs of university teachers in the short term. As previously stated, university teacher educators are one group of university teacher in higher education, and therefore university-based teacher educators, in particular beginning and middle-aged university teacher educators have some professional development opportunities; however, according to the statistics, these professional development opportunities are not sufficient. So there is a policy that relates to teacher educators' professional development but it appears insufficient for the large

number of teacher educators. In addition, although the project considers the diversity of the professional development needs of university teachers at different ages and different levels of experience and numbers of serving years, it is still not able to match the professional development needs of teacher educators, as the project emphasises general knowledge and teaching skills in general. There is a need to develop a specialised project for teacher educators.

Induction Scheme for Teachers in Higher Education

SMEC has recently published a policy for teachers in higher education. The policy document announces that all beginning teachers in higher education (including ideological and political theory teachers, university counsellors, teachers and researchers) must take part in induction before teaching. Teachers take periodic courses that are provided by ECNU and SHNU every year. They use a blended style of learning, which includes institution-based studies, lectures, and self-directed studies. The workloads of the trainees are decreased and their pay remains unchanged while they participate in off the job training (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2013). In the spring of 2014, SMEC asked ECNU and SHNU to reflect on their experiences and challenges in relation to the induction scheme that they had undertaken in 2013, and then they tried to improve the project. As well as what was already in place, in the 2014 scheme each candidate has had a mentor to guide institution-based practices (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2014c).

Professional Development Centre for Teachers in Independent Higher Education Institutions

In order to enhance the professional development of teachers in independent education institutions, SMEC announced the establishment of the Professional Development Centre for Teachers of Independent Higher Education Institutions. This centre aims to produce a professional development plan for teachers in independent higher education institutions, to provide opportunities for international communication, to arrange and manage teachers' international communication, and to conduct the institutions' policymaking consultations. Each independent higher education institution may establish a sub-centre to conduct

teacher professional development activities under the supervision of the centre (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2014b).

Shanghai's teacher education policies respond to and implement the national policies. Neither the national policies nor Shanghai's policies are closely related to teacher educators. They all relate to the teachers in higher education or some of the teachers in schools, rather than specifically to teacher educators. However, as teacher educators are among teachers in higher education or teachers in schools, it is important to understand the existing policies for these groups as they have some relevance for teacher educators. Therefore, there is a need to identify who teacher educators are in higher education, and who teacher educators are in school-based institutions.

2.5.3 Perspectives on Teacher Education in China from the Policy Experts

This section presents the perspectives in relation to Chinese teacher education from Professor Gu and Professor Zhong. As stated above, Professor Gu and Professor Zhong are Professors in teacher education from BNU and ECNU, respectively. They have not only worked as teacher educators for many years, but have also been involved in making many of the significant policies on teacher education in China. I also interviewed Mrs Hong Sun, the deputy director of the Department of Teacher Education, at SMEC. Although Mrs Sun has worked in teacher education administration for many years, the perspectives that she described in her interview are mostly a repetition of those in the policy documents published by SMEC recently, so I refer to Shanghai's policy documents rather than Mrs Sun's perspectives. (More information about these three teacher education experts can be seen in the Methodology chapter, p.94). The main points of Professor Gu's and Professor Zhong's perspectives focus on the historical development of teacher education in China, features of Chinese teacher education, and the opportunities and challenges of teacher education in China, which offer some potential opportunities and challenges for Shanghai's teacher education.

Historical development of teacher education in China

The policymakers' responses indicated that Chinese teacher education has had a long historical development since its foundation in the 1890s. Both of them recognised that the 1950s, the 1990s, and the new century are the three most important periods for the history of teacher education in China, as many changes in relation to politics, the economy and education have taken place during these periods. This is in line with my description in the section 'Historical development of teacher education in Shanghai' (See p. 13).

In the 1950s, after the foundation of the PRC, the state had an urgent need to train school teachers for the construction of the new country. The 'three levels of normal education system' was therefore established, which had a strong influence on teacher education (See p.14), and the current system of teacher education still retains many features of this model. For example, there is still a hierarchy of initial teacher education in Shanghai (e.g. secondary school teachers are prepared by the normal universities, and nursery teachers are prepared by the colleges). Both experts emphasised the historical contribution of the three levels of normal education system. They said,

[In that period], the system of teacher certification obviously played a significant role in ensuring that school education was orderly and a solid foundation to educate people for the new China. (Professor Gu)

It cannot be denied that the system of teacher preparation has played a considerable role during this period. Since the foundation of the PRC, especially since the 1980s, it has ensured the provision of teachers for what is the biggest basic education enterprise in the world. (Professor Zhong)

The System of Teacher Preparation could not respond to the demands for the development of teacher education or represent the new direction for future development. Therefore, it was inevitable that the System of Teacher Preparation became the system of 'teacher education'. At the end of the 1990s, there was a major movement for teacher education across the country (See p.18 and p. 21). The government announced that teacher education was not only the responsibility of normal schools, colleges and universities, but also the responsibility of all comprehensive universities as long as they had accreditation for teacher education, to address the issue that the curriculum in normal institutions was excessively monotonous (Ministry of Education, 1999). This movement has created many

changes in Shanghai's teacher education. Many 'non-normal' higher education institutions (HEIs) are now involved in teacher education. For example, SISU (2000), XC (2002), TC (2005), and the recently opened Xianda College of Economics and Humanities of SISU (2008) all started to participate in teacher preparation at different levels.

Features of current teacher education in China

Both of the policymakers indicated that Chinese teacher education is transforming currently. The traditional system of normal education is gradually collapsing, and a new system of teacher education which has some new characteristics has not yet been established.

Firstly, teacher education has changed from 'teacher preparation' to 'teacher education'. Professor Gu described how 'teacher preparation' has been replaced by two levels of 'teacher education' and, as a result, initial teacher education is becoming more diverse. Professor Zhong echoed this description. They both believed that the reason for this is the adjustment of colleges and universities, mentioned above. As a result, secondary normal schools have decreased from more than 1, 000 to just over 100 (Zhu and Hu, 2009: 81). Some of the former secondary normal schools changed to general secondary schools and some of them updated to junior normal colleges or merged into junior normal colleges (Zhu and Hu, 2009: 82). As Professor Gu and Professor Zhong indicated,

The teacher education system is moving from the traditional three levels of teacher education to a two level system, which means that nursery teacher training is governed by secondary normal schools, and primary and secondary school teacher training is the responsibility of normal colleges and normal universities. (Professor Gu)

Chinese higher education institutions have undergone a large adjustment – comprehensive universities and other universities were encouraged to engage in teacher education as long as they were qualified to do so. Hence, the closed system was opened up. (Professor Zhong)

The changes from 'teacher preparation' to 'teacher education' described above mean that teacher education in China is no longer a simple process for 'producing' school teachers. Having more 'non-normal' institutions involved in teacher education accelerates the

diversity of teacher education, including the diversity of teacher education institutions and teacher education programmes. The notion of ‘teacher preparation’ in the Chinese context emphasises morality and ethical issues, which permeated the range of Party and government political intentions over the last decade (Pan and Wu, 2004). The notion of ‘teacher education’ emphasises the professionalism of teachers more, with policies and procedures designed to equip prospective teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviours and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the classroom, school and wider community. This change has had an impact on initial teacher education in Shanghai, because teacher educators have had to change thinking and teaching styles to meet student teachers’ needs.

Secondly, teacher education has changed from a ‘closed system’ to an ‘open system’. The Professors both indicated that initial teacher education is now open to institutions other than the normal institutions, and teacher preparation in China is not only taking place through the programmes carried out by normal institutions, comprehensive universities and technical universities, but also through the authentication of teacher qualifications. This encourages the graduates of non-normal universities to become involved in the teaching profession as long as they are qualified to do so. Professor Zhong gave many examples to explain the diversity of teacher education, such as non-normal graduates entering the teaching profession, ‘4+2’ and ‘4+1+2’ models of initial teacher education, and institutions cooperating over the training of teachers (See p. 24).

In terms of the teacher training models, some universities have abandoned the original model of a three-year college degree and a four-year Bachelor degree and constructed some new models such as 4+2 or 4+1+2 etc. A new cooperating mode has even emerged between universities, local authorities and schools. (Professor Zhong)

Professor Gu added that comprehensive universities do not engage in the mainstream of teacher education. Even though the system has become open, as Professor Gu pointed out, most teacher training is still the responsibility of ‘the normal series’ rather than ‘the non-normal series’ of institutions.

Due to the way the policy was implemented during these years, some comprehensive universities, such as Beijing University, only provide Masters and doctorate programmes, rather than initial teacher education (ITE), which is the most popular

way of training undergraduate student teachers. Therefore, in a way, this type of university has not actually trained teachers. (Professor Gu)

As stated above, a number of non-normal teacher education institutions participate in teacher education (See p.18 and p. 21). There are several pilot Masters level programmes for teacher education in Shanghai (See p. 24). Shanghai has acted as a pioneer in this changed open system of teacher education.

Thirdly, teacher education has changed from ‘two’ to ‘one’. Professor Gu defined the concept of integrated teacher education. He stated that integration means higher education needs to take on the responsibility for initial teacher education as well as in-service teacher education. He then gave some examples, as follows:

For instance, the normal universities run Masters and doctoral programmes for in-service teachers, who study part-time with them during the summer or winter holidays or even in evenings or at weekends. Alternatively, some serving teachers get time off to study on these programmes. Another symbolic change in 2006 was that the Chinese Ministry of Education entrusted its six national normal universities to run a programme to train tuition-fee-free normal student teachers. In addition, a number of undergraduate student teachers move straight to postgraduate study after their graduation from normal college or university. (Professor Gu)

These two experts recognised that teacher education is becoming integrated, and that there have been some attempts or initiatives to move this forward. At the same time, they both indicated that teacher education is not fully integrated at the moment. Therefore, in many ways, teacher education is only at the beginning of the integration stage. Actually, both Professor Gu and Professor Zhong recognised that Chinese initial teacher education and in-service teacher education have not really moved closer together.

Pre-service teacher education and in-service teacher education are still two separate systems. Therefore there is a lack of any unified plan. In fact, pre-service training and in-service education are inseparable for teachers’ personal development. So, China currently attaches great importance to the integration of pre-service and in-service teacher education. (Professor Zhong)

Chinese teacher education has not really come together, even though China has made some progress towards this through the years and some aspects have integrated.

(Professor Gu)

In Shanghai, ECNU and SHNU have been involved in the integration of teacher education, in line with the perspectives of the experts above. This means there is a possibility that Shanghai will establish career-long professional development for school teachers. This will require teacher educators to have professional preparation for this change.

Opportunities for Current Teacher Education in China

The experts found that there are many opportunities for teacher education in China at present, such as governmental emphasis on education and considerable emphasis on education from the Chinese People.

Firstly, they both highlighted that the government attaches more importance to education and personal growth. Financial investment in education has gradually increased every year and now has increased to 4% of Chinese GDP. Regarding teacher education, especially teacher training, the amount of investment has increased to over ten times what it was before. As Professor Gu highlighted:

Fortunately, our government has paid great attention to teacher education. The investment in teacher education has been increasing every year. In 2000, the government invested 50 million [Chinese] Yuan on teacher training. In 2010, that investment increased to 1.15 billion [Chinese] Yuan. Last year [2012] was the same as 2010. I heard that this year [2013] the investment will be higher than before, with only a small part being controlled by central government and the larger part being held by local authorities. (Professor Gu)

In addition, the government has published many policy documents to enhance teacher education. In recent years, the government has published four sets of standards for different types of teacher groups, and curriculum standards for the curriculum reform of teacher education, which indicates that the government has recognised the significance of teacher education for the nation. Professor Gu said:

In 2012, the government published four professional standards: for nursery teachers, primary school teachers, secondary school teachers and head teachers, respectively. In

the future, China will introduce a national examination system for teacher qualification. Two provinces have been trialling this since 2012 and the number of trials will increase in 2013. In the near future, China will fully implement a system of teacher registration just as in foreign countries. (Professor Gu)

All these initiatives strongly encourage teachers and teacher educators, as we have not seen any other country invest so much money in education over a very short period as China has. This means that the Chinese government has a deliberate national strategy, set out in its announcement of the *Outline of National Medium and Long-term Educational Reform and Development* (2010 – 2020).

Secondly, Professor Gu indicated that education is vital for all pupils, parents and families, that currently the demands of education are still very heavy, and people therefore pay much more attention to education than before. They call for educational reform, so they will certainly push reform of teacher education forward. Professor Gu thought the reason for people highlighting reform of education is mainly due to ‘traditional culture and changing society’, as he stated:

We have now discovered that more and more students go abroad in order to avoid the national examination for college entrance [*Gaokao*], which shows that Chinese students have very heavy learning burdens and face very intense competition. The heavy learning burden is mainly due to the very fierce competition in education that is influenced by the fierce competition in society. However, they are also affected by traditional culture and society. (Professor Gu)

However, in Professor Zhong’s view, this situation is caused by ‘administrative interventions’ and ‘excessive administrative orders’. He thought that the administrative interventions are sometimes too general, because they do not consider the reality of practice in schools, and they do not uncover the true nature of the issues. Professor Zhong said:

Teacher education is much more bureaucratic. To some extent, it ignores the teacher’s autonomous status. Now many people are angry about educational administration. As long as the enabling power exists, guidance on reducing administration should certainly be implemented. Over the years, the guidance on alleviating burdens on students is a typical example. I remember that the guidance was implemented when I was a high school student, but so far the burden on students is still very heavy. In this

case, the administrative intervention is sometimes too general. Many education authorities thought that producing a paper document could reduce half or one-third of the students' workload. Some local authorities even announced that there would be no burdens at all. In fact, students need a reasonable workload. A statement which says that students do not have any burden is also not appropriate. The point is whether the education administration recognises the individuality of teachers. If so, they need to let go or have very little control over professional development. (Professor Zhong)

They both believed that there is a major need for educational reform, but Professor Gu said that all the people, including teacher groups and parent groups, call for reform whilst Professor Zhong only indicated that teacher groups called for it.

Challenges to Current Teacher Education in China

The two experts indicated that there were many challenges for current teacher education in China, such as integrated teacher education, changing concepts and improving the literacy of teachers and misunderstandings about teachers' social status.

Firstly, they were in near-agreement that examination-oriented education is a dominant issue that strongly influences teacher education. Professor Gu noted that examination-oriented education is relevant for all people and families in China, and it is therefore difficult to make the large decision to change this system. Professor Zhong had a similar viewpoint, but added that examination-oriented education will influence teacher education; as a result, teacher education will get worse rather than improve. They both believed that it is mainly responsible for the fierce competition and heavy learning demands. There is a crisis in that the present professional development of teachers will be influenced by examination-oriented education. (As Professor Zhong affirmed, teacher education has in fact already been influenced). Professor Zhong indicated,

The emphasis on examinations will easily be portrayed as a foundation for typical quality-oriented education and teacher training by some schools and so-called scholars. Therefore, professional development is a double-edged sword: it can cut off the growth of the emphasis on examinations, but it can also be an accomplice in intensifying its growth. (Professor Zhong)

The opinion of Professor Gu was very similar to Professor Zhong's. They were both concerned that examination-oriented education will lead teacher education into a worse situation. Professor Gu also found that:

The reform of the examination system is very difficult to bring about. As the Chinese system of examination influences everybody and every family, the change needed will be difficult to decide on ... Therefore, this issue is an insoluble problem at this stage of the social transformation and in the context of unequal social distribution. So I have to say this issue is a very big challenge for Chinese education. (Professor Gu)

Secondly, they both reflected that the old ideas held by teachers are the main challenges for teacher education. Professor Gu thought about why teachers do not dare to attempt to apply new ideas and concepts to their teaching practice in the context of examination-oriented education. He pointed out that the most basic reasons were the methods of assessment for teachers and students.

If the assessment always focuses on the results of students and the performance of teachers, teachers will certainly only look at the scores the students got in the examinations, especially in the college entrance examination [*Gaokao*]. (Professor Gu)

Therefore, this kind of teacher education will lead to another end:

Professional development is facing two major challenges. One is how to beat back the emphasis on examinations and its interference, and how to cut off the supply lines that make the emphasis on examinations grow. (Professor Zhong)

Thirdly, they believed there are misunderstandings about teachers' social status. Professor Gu indicated that currently there are some misunderstandings about teacher education within society. On the one hand, some normal universities emphasise academic quality excessively and ignore teaching skills, even opposing the improvement of teachers' professional literacy, despite the fact that research on teaching skills is also academic. On the other hand, they do not acknowledge the professional status of teachers. Professor Gu gave the example that:

For a long time, many people thought that if a person had a lot of knowledge then he/she could certainly be a school teacher. Even some scientists still think that the most important thing for a teacher is knowledge of their subject. Therefore, some

normal universities follow the comprehensive universities, emphasising scholarship excessively and overlooking teaching skills. (Professor Gu)

In terms of the identities of teachers, Professor Zhong indicated that the process of recognising the teaching profession in China has gone through three stages: unprofessional, semi-professional and professional. He believed that the teaching profession is the professions' profession and the profession of learning.

2.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter sets out the background to Shanghai's teacher education system and the policies for teacher educators in Shanghai. As an important part of the centralised country of China, Shanghai's teacher education system is set in the context of the Chinese teacher education system. However, Shanghai's educational system has many distinctive features that differ from those in other parts of China. For example, Shanghai conducts a '5-4-3' basic education system, and acts as a pilot region for conducting a one-year probationer induction scheme and a full registration system. Shanghai is also exploring Masters level initial teacher education and is offering a shortened programme by developing curriculum resources and a Credit Bank for the continuing professional development of school teachers. In terms of policies for teacher educators in Shanghai, there are no specialised policy documents available in the State or Shanghai, although there are a number of policies in relation to the professional development of teachers in higher education institutions generally. As initial teacher education is conducted by higher education institutions in Shanghai, these policy documents apply to pre-service teacher educators who work in higher education institutions. There is thus a need to investigate who teacher educators are in different institutional contexts. Following this chapter's exploration of the basic situation of Shanghai's education of teacher educators, the next chapter will review the literature on teacher educators' professional identities, roles and responsibilities and their professional development both nationally and internationally.

Chapter 3 Studying Teacher Educators' Professional Development: Research Context

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a critical overview of the selected literature, which sets up a conceptual framework informing the research on the professional development of teacher educators. I will bring together research from the three important areas (policy change; identity, role and responsibility; organisational culture) that significantly impact the professional development of teacher educators. As Day et al. (2007: 19) argue, each of these has been associated with 'paradigm-specific' methods of data collection and analysis. Although many studies (e.g. O'Hara and Pritchard, 2008; Silova et al., 2010; Smith, 2010; Loughran, 2014) and syntheses of research (e.g. Koster et al., 2008; Griffiths et al., 2013) have been done on these areas individually, no major study has examined whether policy change influences the professional development of teacher educators differently in different institutional settings in China. In Section 3.5 of this chapter, a selection of the literature (mainly empirical literature) published by both Chinese and Western scholars within the last three decades concerning the professional development of teacher educators will be explored. Some older, but very important, literature that relates to research on teacher educators is also reviewed.

The conceptual framework in Figure 3.1 has been constructed to make some of the key concepts inherent in the professional development of teacher educators clear. 'Policy' can be taken to refer to the principles that 'govern action directed towards given ends' (Titmuss, 1974: 138). This notion indicates action about means as well as ends and thus implies that policy can change situations, systems, professional practice and behaviour. In this study, policy change influences teacher educators' professional development. This is an interactive relationship. Policy change impacts on teacher educators' professional development and, at the same time, the teacher educators make sense of, and respond to, this change. Moreover, teacher educators with different roles and responsibilities in different organisational cultures respond to this change in different ways. Therefore, these three areas (policy change; identity, role and responsibility; and organisational culture) are interrelated and interdependent with respect to professional development. Policy change influences the professional development of teacher educators, within different

organisational cultures, by affecting their work. After policy change, teacher educators' roles and responsibilities change (Welmond, 2002) and this manifests itself, in particular, in different organisational cultures (Kinnie and Swart, 2012). Figure 3.1 offers one way of conceptualising the three major factors that teacher educators face in their professional developmental journey. In this chapter, I will analyse each of these factors in order to develop an understanding of how each impacts the professional development of teacher educators.

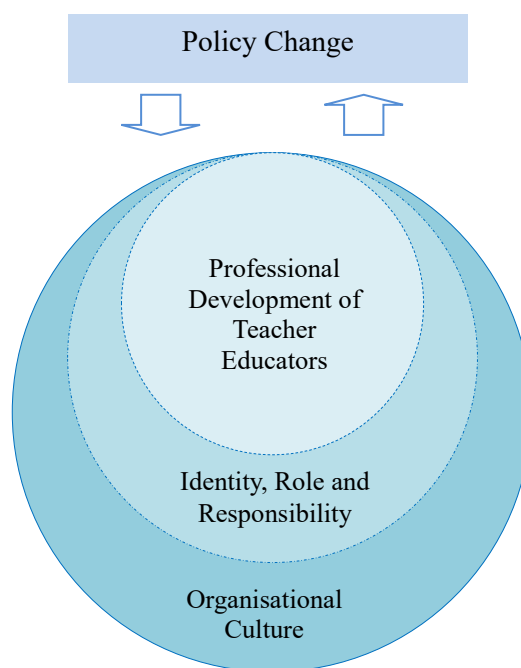


Figure 3.1 Conceptual framework of the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai

3.2 Policy Change

Teacher educators are a crucial group of people in higher education and in schools who “are formally involved in pre-service and in-service teacher education” (Swennen and van der Klink, 2008: 6) in order to support teacher development with the aim of raising the teaching quality and, in turn, to impact student achievement. The professional development of teacher educators is no different to that of school teachers in the teaching profession, in that it, “is subject to central control and direction, is answerable to multiple agencies and has to respond to the expectations and needs of a rapidly changing society” (Day et al.,

2007: 3). For these reasons, if we are to understand teacher educators' work and professional development, it is important to understand the policies, the policy changes and the institutional contexts that influence them.

In Chapter 2, I described the policy context of teacher education in China, and the two policy makers' perspectives on policy making and implementation. Their description suggests that a centralised political and social system has meant that there have been fundamental changes in the demands made on education in China. In turn, teacher educators also have to keep up to date with the developments in their discipline and keep abreast of a range of new curricular and policy changes in the country. This has placed enormous pressure on teacher educators, who prepare new teachers for schools and train the in-service school teachers, as the new environment is very different from the environment that they themselves experienced.

In teacher education, the emphasis on change has manifested itself in different ways in different countries all over the world according to their histories and transitions (Hammersley-Fletcher and Qualter, 2009). Changes have been made in many countries that aim to improve teacher education and raise educational standards and, at the same time, they have had a significant impact on teacher educators' professional development. For example, in England, teacher education is now intimately related to the changing national policy priorities in which one of the most distinctive features is that the government has promoted the development of partnerships across the whole of State service provision, including teacher education (Furlong et al., 2008: 49). This happened during the leadership of the Labour Party. The Conservative and Liberal-Democratic coalition government published the first real signals of this policy intent in the government White Paper, *The Importance of Teaching* (Department for Education, 2010) which signalled a significant shift to more school-led, school-based teacher education (Childs, 2013). This created a new policy direction that would cause large changes in understanding teachers' and teacher educators' identity, roles and responsibilities.

In Scotland, the Donaldson report, *Teaching Scotland's Future* (Donaldson, 2011) explicitly set out a positive view of teacher education throughout the course of the teaching career, making Scotland a more positive place in which to be working and researching teacher education (Menter, 2011).

In the USA, the changes appear more ambitious. During the late 1990s and into the early 2000s, a ‘new teacher education’ was established, due to a public policy problem based on research evidence and driven by outcomes (Cochran-Smith, 2008). This ‘new teacher education’ encourages the states to expand alternative certification programmes, which have increased expectations for traditional teacher education and certification (Darling-Hammond and Lieberman, 2012: 132).

In recent years, Australia announced the *Smarter Schools-Improving Quality National Partnership programme* (Department of Education Employment and Workplace Relations, 2010) that aims to attract, prepare, place, develop and retain quality teachers and school leaders in schools (Mayer et al., 2012). This aims to improve the quality of teaching and includes the improvement of both teachers’ skills and knowledge of teaching, as well as challenging their knowledge and competence.

The examples above suggest that policy change affects teacher education both positively and negatively. It is no different in China. As described in Chapter 2, teacher education policy in China has been changing radically since the start of the twenty-first century. Many of these changes were subject to the government’s policy interventions, which have made education a priority in order to raise standards through improving teaching and learning quality (Zhu and Han, 2006). More recently, the Chinese national teacher education policy change has been characterised by the following trends:

- (a) Teacher education has changed from a ‘closed system’ to an ‘open system’.
Teacher education is not only the task of ‘normal institutions’ as, more and more comprehensive universities have become involved in initial teacher education.
- (b) Attempts of integrating initial teacher education and in-service teacher education have been taking place in a number of pioneering regions.
- (c) Teacher education institutions are no longer ‘factories’ of ‘producing’ school teachers. Teacher education is more concerned with social change and market demands.
- (d) Standard-based and practice-orientated teacher education has been leading national teacher education directions.
- (e) The government’s emphases on, and national investment in, teacher education has been increasing year by year.

These changes focus on governmental and institutional responsibilities, teacher education curricula, teacher education direction and expectations, as well as economical investment, and have a strong impact on teacher educators' roles and responsibilities, as well as on their professional development. For example, firstly, the diversity of provision of teacher education in China makes the roles and responsibilities of teacher educators complex. Secondly, the integration of preservice and in-service teacher education provides teacher educators with many challenges in respect to redefining their professional knowledge and competencies to meet policy expectations.

Shanghai's educational system has been described as one of the most distinctive in China, as well as in the world (OECD, 2010a; OECD, 2013). Shanghai is leading the development of policy change and education improvement for the country. Most recently, as well as the national changes listed above, there have been a number of large moves in relation to teacher education policy change in Shanghai:

- (a) University teachers' professional development projects have taken place, covering all levels, subjects, age groups and sectors. This has had an impact on all types of higher education based on teacher educators' professional development.
- (b) In its provision of base schools (i.e. professional development schools) and a one year induction scheme, Shanghai has been recognised as the 'national pioneer'.
- (c) Shanghai's provision of credit bank and contract-based CPD has been similarly recognised.
- (d) Shanghai's 'Shadow headteacher' and 'Shadow teacher' projects have been preparing a huge number of expert leaders and teachers as 'seeds' for in-service teacher education.

Comparative studies of the impact of the changes in policy on teacher educators have shown that histories, transitions, and organisational and national cultures, all have an impact on how effective a policy is (Osborn, 2006; Ozga, 2002). At the same time, policy change has a significant impact on the professional identities as well as the roles and responsibilities of teacher educators (Hammersley-Fletcher and Qualter, 2009).

In England, Childs (2013) maintains that the government's school-based, school-led teacher education policy direction suggests that there will be a shift to more experienced and outstanding teachers becoming the predominant group of teacher educators. This shift

will lead to more education of both beginning and experienced teachers through processes of collaboration in and between schools and with other teacher education organisations. This policy shift thus provides more uncertainties around the roles and responsibilities of teacher educators within different settings.

In Turkey, O'Dwyer and Atlı (2015) argue that the role of the wholly school-based in-service teacher educator encompasses a broad set of complex interpersonal and professional skills, which are firmly embedded within the context in which they operate as they need to respond to changing institutional landscapes. This means that changes in the organisational context, where policy is made, interpreted, and implemented, have an impact on their role. Although the distinctive role and identity of teacher educators has gradually been receiving more attention in research, in practice as well as in educational policy in this decade, some research reveals that not all teacher educators consider their roles and identities primarily to be those of teacher educators. School-based teacher educators and teachers who recently have become teacher educators view their role as that of a school teacher (McKeon and Harrison, 2010; Murray and Male, 2005). According to Chetty and Lubben (2010) and Lunenberg et al. (2011), teacher educators in universities think they should comply with the academic and scholarly requirements of all academic staff in their institution as well as adhering to their academic discipline.

In both the USA and Australia, a large number of teacher educators directly come from universities with a Ph.D., rather than from primary or secondary schools (Zeichner, 2010). The tendencies for these teacher educators to view their roles and responsibilities differently seem to be reinforced by national policies, advocating on the one hand the inclusion of, or even a shift to, school-based teacher education (e.g. school-based teacher training in England and Wales), and on the other hand, a more academic research-based teacher education (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Murray et al., 2011).

The existing literature discussed above informs us that when policy changes, teacher educators' identities, roles and responsibilities (which will be discussed in Section 3.3) will change accordingly within such contexts and that these changes manifest themselves in different ways according to the different national and organisational histories, traditions and stories (which are related to the organisational culture that will be discussed in Section 3.4). These views inform this study into the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai by offering an opportunity to reflect on how the participants respond to the

policy changes in different ways in different institutional settings, and the professional development needed to support them in these changes.

3.3 Identity, Role and Responsibility

Although much has been written about identity, the meaning of the term is often not concretely defined in different contexts (Beijaard et al., 2004). Indeed, there are many theoretical perspectives on identity. The typical representatives are psychological perspectives, sociological perspectives and sociocultural perspectives. Each of these perspectives carries with it different ideological assumptions and beliefs about the nature of self and identity.

Regarding the psychological perspectives, Freud's (1975) theory focused on the psychological aspects of development, and Cooley (1902), Mead (1934) and Erikson (1959) added other influences, helping to broaden and expand psychoanalytic theory. They also contributed to our understanding of personality as it is developed and shaped over the course of a lifetime, as well as of identity as being an interaction with the environment. These theories remind us that identity is formed and revised throughout an individual's lifetime, through the interplay of processes of self-discovery, personal construction, and social construction. Some of these are relatively deliberate and explicit, whereas others are more automatic and implicit.

From the viewpoint of sociological perspectives, Tajfel (1974) describes the concept of a social identity as a way in which to explain intergroup behaviour. The primary assumption of social identity theory is that members of an in-group will seek to find negative aspects of an out-group, thus enhancing their self-image. This is a typical approach that is based on a normal cognitive process which involves assuming the existence of differences between groups and the similarities of things in the same group (Tajfel, 1974). Based on the above theories, identity can be recognised as a certain kind of person (Gee, 2000) (individuals), in a given context (groups or communities), which may reflect certain life paths and decisions (Kroger, 2007) and allows people to draw strength from their affiliation with social groups and collectives (Schwartz et al., 2007). These lenses are beneficial for this study in order to help us understand teacher educators as individuals, as well as a collective group within

different institutional settings.

Concerning the sociocultural perspectives, Wenger (1998, 2000) offers a definition which is helpful for my study as he sees identity as engagement in the world, but that people have multiple sources of identity and ways of connecting because ‘if knowing is an act of belonging, then our identities are a key structuring element of how we know’ (Wenger, 2000: 238). One of the four components of Wenger’s (1998: 149) communities of practice theory is ‘identity-learning as becoming’. The ‘becoming’ here defines who we are by ‘the ways we participate and reify ourselves; our community membership; our learning trajectories (where we have been and where we are going); reconciling our membership in a number of communities into one identity; and negotiating local ways of belonging with broader, more global discourse communities’. Therefore, identity relates to context as well as to time, and can be seen as a never-ending journey in the engagement of practice.

The above perspectives characterise identity as personal and social, multifaceted and fragmented, evolving and shifting in nature. This complexity often makes people confused (Beijaard et al., 2004), especially when they compare this concept with that of role.

A role “is a set of...behaviours pertaining to a particular task or social function” (Collins, 1982: 109). This implies that an individual, in each role he or she plays, requires a certain set of behaviours in order to be successful. A role is a dynamic and socially defined component of work experience (Perrone et al., 2003) that contains “emergent task elements plus those elements of the job that are communicated to the job incumbent through the social system and maintained in that system” (Ilgen and Hollenbeck, 1991: 174). Each person can be seen as having several roles (e.g. mother, wife, teacher, postgraduate, and friend) which are transient in daily life. For example, a woman who has a child has not always been a mother and, sometime in the future, her role as a daughter will pass away with her parents. A person’s roles are an external manifestation of their values and beliefs, as roles refer to ‘external labels’ applied to people who are expected or obliged to perform some set of actions, behaviours, routines, or functions in particular situations (Fearon, 1999: 19) .

While role defines a position in an organisation, responsibilities are an expression of the outcomes expected of that person in support of their role. In this study, ‘teacher educator’ is a role and his/her responsibilities are to provide professional support to student teachers, or/and school teachers. In this context, I take ‘identity’ as the individual’s own notion of

who and what they are (Watson, 2008), shaped by their experiences and by the social situation in which they find themselves. I take 'roles' to be the formal and informal expectations held by the individuals and their colleagues about the duties and responsibilities associated with their particular positions (Katz and Kahn, 1978). Although we may not know every aspect of someone's identities, by knowing the roles that they play in an organisation, we should know what responsibilities they assume.

It is not easy to distinguish the concepts of, and relationship between, identity and role. Castells (2011) suggests that there is a nuanced difference between identity and role, which presents a challenge to people in attempting to understand each other:

Identity must be distinguished from what, traditionally, sociologists have called roles and role sets. Roles...are defined by norms structured by the institutions and organisations of society. Their relative weight in influencing people's behaviour depends upon negotiations and arrangements between individuals and those institutions and organisations. Identities are sources of meaning for the actors themselves, and by themselves, constructed through the process of individualisation. (Castells, 2011: 6-7)

Although Castells' model provides a distinction between identity and role, much research emphasises the interaction between identity and roles (e.g. Goodson, 2002; Acker, 1999; Day et al., 2006). Day et al. (2006), for example, indicate that teachers define themselves through an understanding of their past and current identities as defined by their personal and social histories and their current roles. In some of Day's earlier work, he indicates that teachers' identity is subject to their personal biography, culture, social influence and institutional values that may change according to role and circumstance (Day, 2002). These studies suggest that it is difficult to completely separate roles from identity and to understand identity without understanding its interaction with roles and responsibilities.

This confusion makes it necessary to consider the complexity of both the identities and roles of teacher educators. As Cochran-Smith (2003) and Livingston (2014) argue, the identity of teacher educators has to be defined before the professional development of teacher educators can be seriously considered. However, again, it is difficult to tease out the interactions between identity, roles and responsibilities. Mayer (1999) provides an explicit focus on an educator's identity as distinct from a teacher's functional roles.

A teaching role encapsulates the things the teacher does in performing the functions required of her/him as a teacher, whereas a teaching identity is a more personal thing and indicates how one identifies with being a teacher and how one feels as a teacher. (Mayer, 1999: 6-7)

Mayer's distinction between roles and identity can be applied to teacher educators and has similarities to Castells' (2011) model. Mayer's assumption considers identity as a more personal thing that 'can change from moment to moment in its interaction, can change from context to context, and, of course, can be ambiguous or unstable' (Gee, 2000: 99), and roles as the things that teacher educators undertake that are 'defined by norms structured by the institutions and organisations of society' (Castells, 2011: 7). Therefore, roles of individual teacher educators have a more organisational aspect.

So, who are teacher educators? What are their roles and responsibilities? Although the profession of teacher educators is not well defined (Khan, 2011; Tryggvason, 2012), and is under-researched (Murray and Male, 2005; Murray, 2005; Swennen et al., 2008), the concept of 'teacher educators' has increasingly been discussed in the past decade. The Association of Teacher Educators has made a *Standard for Teacher Educators* that defines teacher educators as the professionals who teach teachers (Association of Teacher Educators, 2011). This definition looks at all groups of teacher educators as a generic group, regardless of their subjects or their institutions, in contrast to the definitions of Beijaard et al. (2004), and Murray and Male (2005) in which many different 'sub-identities' of teacher educators have been identified. However, a wider range of researchers tend to define the notion of teacher educators more specifically and point to their specific professional roles. For example, Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou (2013) categorise teacher educators into two types: one is field-based teacher educators, who work in directing and mentoring in-service school teachers or probationer teachers. The other is university-based teacher educators, who teach student teachers in higher education institutions. The distinction between them is that they have a different context of professional knowledge and teaching objectives.

In the Chinese research context, Li (2008) describes the tasks and objectives of teacher educators in the traditional institutions for teacher preparation⁹ as being the training of student teachers to become qualified school teachers, regardless of their subject. In this case, the teachers in the traditional institutions for teacher preparation are teacher

⁹ In the normal series, training student teachers is their main mission (See p. 21 and Glossary, p.222).

educators. Li (2012) indicates that there are two main groups of teacher educators in the current teacher education system in China: teacher educators who teach student teachers in HEIs and those who work in schools, mentoring probationer student teachers. His definition of teacher educators accurately covers most teacher educators in China, but the mentors in private companies are not covered. Kang (2012) and Hou (2012) have suggested another definition of teacher educators. They divide teacher educators into two groups: teacher educators who mentor student teachers (probationers) and novice school teachers as mentors in the basic education field; and teacher educators who work in institutions for teacher education including both those in initial teacher education institutions (normal series, see p.21) who train student teachers, and those in teacher training schools who train in-service school teachers. They also indicate that teacher educators are seen as teachers who work in HEIs and train student teachers, including those who teach education theories, psychology, and pedagogical theory. The categories that Kang (2012) and Hou (2012) raise are more comprehensive, but still do not provide a complete view. In fact, in Shanghai, those who are employed by the Shanghai Municipal Education Commission and work in basic schools and those who work in private teacher training agencies are all seen as teacher educators.

The reviewed literature reminds us that both western and Chinese researchers hold different views on the definition of teacher educators. Their ideas concern the roles that teacher educators undertake in different contexts. It is a useful analytical approach for my study to consider the concept defined by Swennen and van der Klink (2008), as it does not limit teacher educators to any single sector of education and is therefore the most appropriate:

Teacher educators in higher education and in schools are formally involved in pre-service and in-service teacher education. [This includes]...those who work full time or part time in teacher education institutes, whether these are colleges of education, or in schools and are involved in teaching and supervise student teachers...[it] also means that those who are involved in the professional development of teachers are regarded as teacher educators. (Swennen and van der Klink, 2008: 6-7)

This study focuses on those professionals who, in either a particular or a general way, ‘teach teachers’, namely the teacher educators who work as university and college teachers and mentors in initial teacher education, and those who mentor in-service school teachers in teacher training schools in Shanghai (See Chapter 2, p. 27). The diversity of the

instructional contexts determines the different expertise required by the teacher educators who work in each sector, meaning that teacher educators need to enhance their professional proficiency in order to confront the particular challenges of their sector.

How are teacher educator's identities and roles distinguished? This question has arisen in many studies. For example, Yang (2011) indicates that many teacher educators are confused about their roles and identities. Teacher educators, who teach student teachers specific subject content, are reported as modestly saying, 'I do not understand education theory' whilst those who have an education theory background anxiously say, 'I do not know about subject content'. Teacher educators identified themselves as school teachers and failed to reveal a clear identity as to what being a 'teacher educator' entails (Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou, 2013). Kang (2012) describes how teacher educators who work at Chinese universities, tend to have a Ph.D. but do not have any work experience in schools. Some of them do not even have a specific subject education background. Therefore, Kang emphasises that, rather than calling them teacher educators, one might as well call them teacher education researchers.

Based on Castells' model, the above Chinese studies are more likely to emphasise teacher educators' roles and responsibilities within different institutional settings, rather than how teacher educators define who they are themselves. In the Chinese context, it is difficult to for teacher educators to differentiate identity from role, as "teacher educators often have a vague understanding of the distinction between identity and role" (Kang, 2012: 15).

Teacher educators in different types of institutions have different roles and responsibilities. Understanding the different organisational cultures helps in grasping the complexity of teacher educator's roles and responsibilities, and how policy change affects their professional development in the different institutional settings. Therefore the next section will focus on the concept of organisational culture.

3.4 Organisational Culture

Culture is a central concept in anthropology and involves the range of phenomena that are transmitted through social learning in human societies. Schein (1985) states that culture is best thought of as a set of basic assumptions that members of a society possess, and which

leads them to think and act in certain ways. Organisational culture has a similar meaning; however it is only applied to the concept of an organisation instead of a society. According to Schein (2010), organisational culture can be defined as follows:

a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to practice, think and feel in relation to those problems. (Schein, 2010: 18)

The definition implies that a set of shared assumptions determine much of the group's behaviour, rules and norms, which are all taught to newcomers during a socialisation process. As Schein (2010) describes, no matter what the size of the organisation, there are two aspects of cultural content that always need to be dealt with, namely: "survival, growth and adaption in their environment; and internal integration that permits daily functioning and the ability to adapt and learn" (Schein, 2010:18). In other words, in teacher education, organisational culture is comprised of various levels of interaction among an organisation's goals and managerial practices, and the constraints and skills, knowledge, needs, and expectations of members of the organisation.

Schein (2010) identifies a typology of culture which allows many dimensions to be clustered according to three levels. These levels relate to artefacts, values, and basic assumptions. According to Schein (2010), at the first level, organisational culture can be observed in the form of physical objects, technology and other visible forms of behaviour such as ceremonies and rituals. Though culture is visible in various forms at this level, it is only present at a superficial manner. In teacher education, for example, teacher educators may interact with one another but what the underlying feelings are or whether there is understanding among them would require probing. At the second level, there is greater awareness and internalisation of cultural values. People in the organisation try finding solutions to a problem in ways which have been tried and tested earlier. Schein (2010) believes that if the group is successful there will be a shared perception of that 'success', leading to cognitive changes turning perception into values and beliefs. At this level, teacher educators may share the experience of teaching, research and management to different degrees in various settings through different ways. The third level represents a process of conversion. When the group repeatedly observes that a method tried earlier works most of the time, it becomes the 'preferred solution' and is converted into a dominant value orientation. The conversion process has advantages, namely that the

dominant value orientation guides behaviour, however at the same time it may negatively influence objective and rational thinking (Schein, 2010). In teacher education, when teacher educators work together, their beliefs and experiences gradually become shared assumptions (Watson and Mason, 2007). Once a set of shared basic assumptions is formed by this process, it defines the features and identity of the group (Danielewicz, 2014) and this communal identity affects both individual teacher educators and the group as a whole.

The main function of organisational culture is to define the way of doing things in order to give meaning to organisational life (Arnold and Silvester, 2005). Creating meaning is an important part of organisational culture, as organisational members need to benefit from the organisation and from the other members. As a result, organisational members are able to benefit from the knowledge gained after others have performed trial and error learning, (Johnson, 1990). Organisational culture also determines organisational behaviour, by identifying principal goals, work methods, how members should interact and address each other, as well as how to conduct personal relationships (Harrison and Stokes, 1993).

This implies that in a teacher education organisation, teacher educators' behaviour is determined by both the organisations that make the policies, regulations and norms, and their peers that interact with each other. The practice of teacher educators in organisations can be seen as a form of 'the sayings and doings', which, according to Kemmis (2012), are associated together and compose a particular kind of practice which links to the understandings and rules within each organisation.

Sun (2008) argues that a successful organisation should have a strong culture that can attract, hold, and reward people for performing roles and achieving goals. She further argues that strong cultures are usually characterised by dedication and co-operation in the service of common values. For institutions of teacher education, this highlights the significance, for each member of the institution of building a strong organisational culture.

Organisational culture can be either weak or strong. Martins and Martins (2009: 18) highlight that "in a strong culture, the organisation's core values are held strongly and shared widely". This suggests that when organisational members accept the shared values, they become more committed to their profession. A strong organisational culture therefore refers to organisations in which beliefs and values are shared relatively consistently throughout (Deal and Kennedy, 1988).

This provides insight into understanding the significance of a strong organisational culture on the members of the institution. As described by Martins and Martins (2009), strong organisational cultures have a great influence on the behaviour of their members. Therefore, a strong culture is a powerful means of guiding behaviour (Deal and Kennedy, 1988). A weak culture, on the other hand, is the opposite, as organisational members do not subscribe to shared beliefs, values and norms (O'Reilly et al., 1991) and find it difficult to identify with the organisation's core values and goals (Wilson, 1992). As a result components or different departments within a weak organisation uphold different beliefs that do not necessarily address the core goals of the organisation.

Although the process is complex, O'Reilly (1989) believes that it is possible to change or manage organisational culture by choosing the attitudes and behaviours that are required, identifying the norms that promote or impede them, and then taking action to create the desired effect. This provides us with a belief that there are possibilities of changing and improving the organisational culture when it is not helpful in meeting the professional development needs of teacher educators. This is in line with the assumptions of Arnold and Silvester (2005: 579) who indicate that "culture can be seen as something that can be managed or changed when the existing culture is inappropriate or even detrimental to the organisation's competitive needs" .

Organisations have both formal and informal culture. The work culture of an organisation, to a large extent, is influenced by the formal components of organisational culture. Roles, responsibilities, accountability, rules and regulations are components of formal culture. They set the expectations that the organisation has for every member and indicate the consequences if these expectations are not fulfilled. There are five components of formal culture and their implications for the organisations: (a) mission/vision that can be seen as milestones to be reached for the institution, but could be unrealistic; (b) policies that can be seen as statements designed to be guidelines for behavioural decisions, however, if not drafted properly, can provide leeway; (c) procedures that refer to specific guidelines, and can facilitate (or create obstacles to) smooth functioning; (d) rules that provide specific instructions for performing a task, and can be means to an end in themselves; (e) the state of organisational development: whether the organisation is at a young, growing, maturing, or mature stage of development has a direct impact on the work culture.

Informal culture, on the other hand, has tangible and intangible, specific and non-specific manifestations of shared values, beliefs, and assumptions. It is the part of organisational culture comprised of artefacts, symbols, ceremonies, rites, as well as stories, and is highlighted in almost all the definitions of organisational culture. In the course of time an informal structure develops in most organisations and is based on the reality of the day-to-day interactions between the members of the organisation. This informal structure may be different from that which is set out on paper. Informal structures develop because: people find new ways of doing things which they find easier and less time consuming; patterns of interaction are shaped by friendship groups and other relationships; and people forget what the formal structures are, as it is easier to work with informal structures. Sometimes the informal structure may conflict with the formal one and this can cause the organisation to become less efficient at meeting its stated objectives. However, in some cases the informal structure may prove to be more efficient at meeting the organisational objectives if the formal structure was badly set out.

This study explores the professional development of teacher educators from different organisational cultures in Shanghai. Different types of institutions for teacher education in Shanghai are likely to have different cultures. As described in Chapter 2, for example, ECNU identifies itself as a research university (East China Normal University, 2014) while XC believes itself to be a teaching oriented institution for teacher education (Shanghai Xingjian College, 2014). The formal and informal culture within the institutions characterises the differences in their organisational culture. Each organisation has norms for the way in which teacher educators should play their roles, should get things done, and what they perceive their roles and responsibilities to be. The teacher educators, who work in any given institution, have different roles with different responsibilities. Therefore, positive or negative organisational culture is likely to affect organisational and professional commitment and loyalty.

Organisational culture has been identified as a major factor that affects both organisational and professional commitment and loyalty (e.g. Meyer et al., 2002; Day et al., 2007; Meyer et al., 1993). Commitment often exists in both organisational and professional dimensions. According to Chang and Choi (2007), organisational commitment refers to the psychological attachment to, and the identification with, an organisation that makes separation from the organisation difficult for the employee. Similarly, professional commitment refers to the relative strength of the identification with, and the involvement

in, one's profession (Morrow and Wirth, 1989). According to this definition, professional commitment has three basic components: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the profession's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the profession; and (c) a strong desire to remain with the profession (loyalty). There are some similarities between the above three components and the view of Meyer et al. (1993) who have made a model that indicates three distinguishing levels of professional commitment: 'affective commitment' (positive emotions towards the profession and a strong desire to remain in the profession); 'normative commitment' (the feeling of obligation to remain in the profession); and 'continuance commitment' (being aware of the costs of leaving the profession). The model assumes that continuance commitment is negatively related to the type of behaviour that might be beneficial to the profession and that individuals with affective and, to a lesser extent, normative commitment show a deeper commitment to the profession.

Loyalty is often applied to business organisations (e.g. Evanschitzky et al., 2012; Baumann et al., 2013; Aghaei et al., 2013), and loyalty of customers is considered to be a function of customer satisfaction (e.g. Baumann et al., 2012; Picón et al., 2014) which inspires customers to repeatedly purchase products and services from the organisation. However, for education, it seems to be slightly different because, in education, loyalty is often related to educators who provide services for 'the customers' (e.g. learners) rather than the educators themselves being served as 'customers'. However, this notion of loyalty can always be adjusted and differently applied. Ting and Yeh (2014) borrow the notion from business and define teacher loyalty in both behavioural and attitudinal dimensions. They define behavioural loyalty as a 'teacher's willingness to continue the service and maintain a relationship with the school' and attitudinal loyalty as 'teacher's psychological attachments and attitudinal advocacy towards the school' (Ting and Yeh, 2014: 87). Ting and Yeh's (2014) model may have benefits for the understanding of teacher educators' loyalty which can be applied here, as this study looks at both teacher educators' behavioural and attitudinal willingness to serve in teacher education.

Although a lot of theoretical and empirical attention has been paid to the professional commitment and loyalty of social workers (e.g. Wu et al., 2012; Giffords, 2009; Jørgensen and Becker, 2015), and teachers (e.g. Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus, 2012b; Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus, 2012a; Day et al., 2007; Day and Gu, 2007; Ting and Yeh, 2014), little research has been conducted on teacher educators' professional commitment and

loyalty. In a report of empirical research in Australia, Crosswell (2006: 109) suggests that there are six dimensions of commitment within the teaching profession:

Commitment as passion; Commitment as investment of extra time; Commitment as a focus on the well-being and achievement of the student; Commitment as a responsibility to maintain professional knowledge; Commitment as transmitting knowledge and /or values; Commitment as engagement with the school community.

This multi-dimensional concept implies that professional commitment and loyalty is the sense of belonging, at the heart of the relationship between the organisation and the individual. Crosswell's (2006) assumptions link to a teacher's professional commitment and loyalty, which can also be applied to teacher educators. However, this study will only draw on one of the assumptions of Crosswell (2006), who maintains that the professional commitment of teachers is demonstrated by the investment of time inside and outside of contact hours within teacher education, and on Ting and Yeh's (2014) model on both behavioural and attitudinal loyalty of teacher educators. This study will explore how many working hours teacher educators actually spend on teacher education. This is also in line with the research report by the European Commission (2013), which identifies teacher educator commitment and loyalty as an investment of time into teacher education.

3.5 Professional Development of Teacher Educators

The primary focus of this study is on the professional development of teacher educators, which means that teacher educators are regarded as professionals who fulfil their roles and responsibilities with specific professional knowledge and competences. This section reviews the notions of profession, professional, professionalisation, and professional development, as well as the existing empirical literature on the professional development of teacher educators.

Profession, Professional and Professionalisation

The idea of ‘a profession’ stems from the Latin word *profiteor*, and means to progress in the sense of having expert knowledge but also with the connotation of taking an oath or making a formal commitment (Lester, 2010). The origins of this term come with two of the defining characteristics of professions, namely, expertise and ethics, and these can be seen as the core of the definition.

There is considerable agreement over the characteristics of a profession. For example, Larson (1977) states that a professional has a ‘professional association, cognitive base, institutionalised training, licensing, work autonomy, colleague control... and code of ethics,’ (p. 208) and ‘high standards of professional and intellectual excellence’ (p. 221). Brown (1992) adds this understanding of members of a profession by defining them as ‘workers whose attributes include a high degree of systematic knowledge; strong community orientation and loyalty; self-regulation; and a system of rewards defined and administered by the community of workers’ (p. 19). These are the basic characteristics of the definition of a profession. Sachs (2012) argues that there are four elements that help to develop and sustain a mature profession: the development of trust; autonomy and standard setting; judgement and professional decision-making; and continuing professional learning that must be a shared commitment by all members. Sachs’ (2012) arguments highlight professional development and improvement rather than control, and professionally led and learning networks. Combining the above perspectives, this study defines a profession as: a paid occupation, especially one that involves prolonged training and a formal qualification, with a high degree of systematic knowledge, a collective or service orientation, a development of trust which comprises implicit codes of behaviour, *esprit de corps*, and shared commitment to ongoing learning among its members.

A professional is a member of a profession. The term also describes the standards of education and training that prepare members with the particular knowledge and skills necessary to perform the role of that profession (Shulman, 1998). In addition, most professionals are subject to strict codes of conduct enshrining rigorous ethical and moral obligations. Professional standards of practice and ethics for a particular field are typically agreed upon and maintained through widely recognised professional associations.

Professionalisation is “when a profession arises when any trade or occupation transforms itself through the development of formal qualification based upon education,

apprenticeship, and examinations, the emergence of regulatory bodies with powers to admit and discipline members, and some degree of monopoly rights” (Bullock et al., 1999: 689). This implies two closely related aspects. On the one hand, knowledge and skill play a central role in a particular specialisation. On the other hand, knowledge and skills are shaped by education, training and experience which are all fundamental requirements of the profession. Sometimes, the qualification is licensed, and then the exercise of discretion based on competences is central and deserving of special status. This can be further interpreted in the sense that professionalisation is intended to promote professionals’ own occupational self-interests. Abbott (1988) indicates these interests may involve practitioners’ salary, status and power as well as the monopoly protection of an occupational jurisdiction.

Research has defined and expressed professionalisation in three models. Each of these models offers a different perspective on the development of a given profession: the attribute model, the process model, and the power model. The attribute model involves the features, attributes or characteristics that define a profession as different from other professions (National Initiative for Cyber Security Education, 2013). When using this model, criteria need to be developed first to define the standards of the profession. This means an occupation is not considered a profession until all of the criteria are met, and the profession in question provides a service that is for the public good (Curnow and McGonigle, 2006). Therefore, the attribute model highlights both professional distinctiveness as well as public values.

In contrast to the attribute model, the process model describes the sequence of events for professionalisation. The process model of professionalisation was proposed by Curnow and McGonigle (2006), and is based on similar models by Houle (1984) and Tobias (2003). The model follows a five-stage process: full time occupation identified; training or educational programmes provided; professional association established; code of ethics established; and support of law provided. This five-stage process presents the professionalisation process chronologically in which each stage has a direct effect on the next stage.

The third professionalisation model is the power model which describes the motivations for professionalisation and how these motivations occur (National Initiative for Cyber Security Education, 2013). The stakeholders seek professionalisation in order to improve

the quality of the services provided, or/and to establish a monopoly over these services. Therefore, for a profession, it is essential to improve the quality of services provided, although this increases the professional's wages or limits competition (Law and Kim, 2005).

McConnell (2004) states that a mature profession includes the following elements: initial professional education; accreditation; skills development; certification; licensing; professional development; professional societies; and code of ethics. Within these elements, an element attributed to a profession can be independent of another element. In other words, a profession may have a 'certification' but not a 'licensing' element, but the more elements applicable to a profession, the more mature the profession is. In the teaching profession, however, Sachs (2012) indicates that teacher professionalisation is the outcome of on-going professional development, and that this shapes it into a mature profession.

As of yet, teacher education has not been seen as a distinct profession, and teacher educators are often, at best, seen as 'hidden professionals' (Livingston, 2014). For the purposes of this study, the minimum operational definition of teacher educators includes them being members of the teaching profession, but teacher education is also likely to be seen as a unique profession with increasing attention paid to it by many governments and researchers around the world. This study assumes teacher educators to be professionals who are 'members of the profession' that educates teachers and assumes that this profession has many specific characteristics.

Professional Knowledge and Competences

As mentioned above, being a teacher educator requires dealing with a complex dual role, both supporting student teachers' learning about teaching and, through one's own teaching, modelling the role of a teacher (Koster et al., 2005). Swennen and van der Klink (2008) state that teacher educators do their work in diverse and complex social and cultural environments in which many players have their own agendas and justifiable goals (p. 94). This situation makes their role-modelling more complex and difficult. Another important issue concerning the role of teacher educators is related to the pedagogical relationship between teacher educators and student-teachers. Comparing teacher educators across three countries (e.g. England, Israel and the Netherlands), Murray et al. (2008a) see teacher

educators as: “a unique – but often overlooked or devalued – professional group, with distinctive knowledge bases, pedagogical expertise, engagement in scholarship and/or research, and deeply rooted social, moral and professional responsibility to schooling” (p. 41). Analysing the British and Dutch standards for teacher educators, they further state that: ‘both of these sets of standards indicate that good teacher educators will be expert teachers of teachers, as well as scholars involved in production of differing forms of new knowledge in their field’ (Murray et al., 2008a: 42).

There has emerged a range of literature in relation to the required professional knowledge and competencies of teacher educators in recent years, e.g. John (2002), Smith (2005), Koster et al. (2005) and Celik (2011). One of the most useful contributors is Smith (2005), who identifies a professional expertise of teacher educators that differs from teachers’ professional expertise through: (a) articulation of reflectivity and meta-cognition; (b) knowledge of how to create new knowledge; (c) teaching children and adults; (d) comprehensive understanding of the educational system; and (e) professional maturity and autonomy.

In addition, a number of organisations have published their standards or reports in relation to teacher educators’ expertise. Different organisations have different perceptions on the quality of teacher educators. As stated above, the first set of standards of teacher educators in the world was set up by the Association of Teacher Educators in America, and describes nine specific standards for teacher educators’ professional knowledge and competencies (Association of Teacher Educators, 2011). The relevant regulations by the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership are not exclusively for teacher educators, but for leadership in teacher education (AITSL, 2011). Some of the requirements for teacher education institutes of both the American National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education and the Teacher Education Accreditation Council are seen as requirements for teacher educators, but most of them are ambiguous and indistinct.

Professional Development

Smith’s (2007) professional decision-making model shows that professional development occurs when beliefs and assumptions about the profession change, and as a result, the professional practice changes. This is related to the professional decisions taken prior to

action. This model indicates the nature or essence of professional development. Another view on this point is raised by Swennen et al. (2010), who view professional development in general terms as the development of a professional identity. They state that the development of a professional identity as a teacher educator will, for the larger part, take place while working as a teacher educator and by interacting with colleagues, student-teachers and others involved in teacher education. It may also take place in more formal settings, such as those created for the professional development of beginning teacher educators (formal induction settings) and experienced teacher educators, such as undertaking a Master's course, doing a Ph.D. or an Ed.D. course or attending courses, workshops and other more structured professional development activities.

Much of the available research on the professional development of teachers involves its relationship with professional engagement, knowledge and experience improvement. Day (1999) stresses that the professional development of teachers has 'moral purposes', through knowledge and experience acquisition.

It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives.
(Day, 1999: 4)

This concept relates to teachers' professional development which can also be applied to teacher educators. It highlights that teachers/teacher educators can make professional changes and develop their individual expertise through activities that are commonly defined as both formal and informal professional learning activities. Therefore, this concept covers the two themes: 'change' and 'outcome'. By referring to and extending the concept of teachers' professional development and conceptual frameworks, the elements of the concept of the professional development of teacher educators which are defined in this study are: (a) professional development that appears when professional beliefs change and practice changes; and (b) outcomes of professional development that are realised through professional development activities.

Reasons for Professional Development

Existing research has paid attention to the external factors which trigger professional developmental activities. For example, in Israel, if a novice teacher educator wants to have a permanent position in teacher education, he/she has to have a Ph.D., otherwise, he/she will be retired early (Katz and Coleman, 2005). In Norway, Smith (2005) indicates that in the current trend for standardisation and academic excellence, teacher educators are under huge pressure to be researchers, project designers and have a Ph.D., which increasingly emphasises and enhances research and results in them paying little attention to teaching. This situation is similar in China.

However, Koster et al. (2008) and Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou (2013) argue that the inherent motivation for teacher educators' professional development has nothing to do with professional advancement or promotion. Their findings have identified that teacher educators seem more oriented towards the acquisition of knowledge and skills, rather than attitudes and beliefs. This 'inherent motivation' can be seen as the internal motivation of professional development. Smith (2003) describes how teacher educators think about their participation in professional development activities which may not only enhance the quality of teacher education, but also maintain their professional passion and interest. This study focuses on both the external and internal motivations that drive teacher educators to participate in professional development.

Approaches to Professional Development

There is a wide range of international research in relation to the approaches towards the professional development of teacher educators. Eraut (1994, 2007) introduces the terms off-job and on-job learning in relation to professional developmental processes. Off-job learning is formal learning that takes place in contexts other than the regular workplace, for example enrolment in formal studies for advanced degrees.

Smith (2010) agrees that formal studies benefit the professional development of teacher educators. She describes how a number of countries have initiated steps to improve the quality of teacher education, an example of which is the requirement for teacher educators to hold advanced academic degrees, at Master degree level or above and, in many contexts,

also at Ph.D. level. Research has identified that the approaches that teacher educators select for their professional development normally reflect their preference of professional learning. For example, Loughran (2004) believes that self-study should be a daily activity for a teacher educator: 'Self-study as a formal approach to research seeks to increase the understanding of oneself; teaching; learning; and to develop the knowledge of these' (p. 9). Smith (2010) argues that teacher educators who present papers at conferences not only get new insights from other researchers, but also have the viability of the outcome of the learning process and of their personal knowledge tested. Dochy et al. (1999) praise feedback from colleagues, as they believe it has a positive impact on professional learning, and in particular on research. Cochran-Smith (2005) argues that, as part of the responsibilities of teacher educators, conducting research can complement the practice part of their work. They may improve their teaching in teacher education through research projects in the local context. In addition, in the Chinese context, the role of self-directed learning for teacher educators in their professional development is strongly emphasised. For example, Li (2012) notes that teacher educators have the task of helping to enhance the professional development of their colleagues at a time of teacher professionalisation and that the professional development of teacher educators should be realised by themselves.

Constraints on Professional Development

There are three primary factors that are seen to constrain the professional development of teacher educators in the literature, namely: time and resources, professional support, and financing.

Firstly, a number of studies indicate that many teacher educators complain that they do not have sufficient time for their professional development. They have to work long hours with heavy teaching burdens, and the time for professional development is thus reduced (Smith and Tillema, 2005; Murray, 2008; Dinkelman et al., 2006). Secondly, in relation to professional support, Smith (2010) suggests that, in a competitive environment, people keep quiet about professional questions and challenges, trying to manage alone for fear of losing their job, or missing out on tenure and promotion opportunities. However, who can support teacher educators? Research has identified that expert teacher educators in the field are the right people to support the education of teacher educators. Swennen et al. (2010) suggest that teacher educators are in need of role models: expert teacher educators who

show them what it means to be a good teacher educator and support them in becoming better researchers and teacher educators in higher education. At the same time, in the last two decades, literature has shown that teacher educators lack professional development guidance or support in the international context. For example, Griffiths et al. (2013) indicate that teacher educators in countries of the European Union as well as in the United States usually enter the field without any formal preparation, and often with little or no support from more experienced colleagues. Previous studies have demonstrated that teacher educators in higher education are facing pressures and problems. Murray (2008), Harrison and McKeon (2008) and van Velzen et al. (2010) emphasise that teacher educators in higher education face a dual transition – a move into universities and a transition from a teaching role to a wider academic role which includes research. Smith (2003) also points out that teacher educators lack induction prior to entering teacher education. In Australia and America, Williams and Ritter (2010) and Dinkelman et al. (2006) emphasise that the difficulties of this transitional period in terms of changing professional identities are not helped by a lack of institutional support. Teachers who were in high positions in schools move into low positions in higher education, i.e. from expert to novice, with the accompanying lower status often given to teacher education. In contrast, in Israel (Shagrir, 2010; van Velzen et al., 2010) and parts of Europe, such as Greece (Griffiths et al., 2010) teacher educators are largely drawn from academic disciplines and experience a different kind of transition, as they have to learn pedagogical subject knowledge and familiarise themselves with the school context. Therefore, professional support for teacher educators is a global issue and is not merely at the country level. Thirdly, Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou (2013) find that teacher educators experience financial barriers and they discuss aspects of the existing structures as inhibiting their efforts to develop, which suggests the setting of barriers to their expected profiles and competencies.

3.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a critical overview of selected literature from a wide range of research into the dimensions relevant to the professional development of teacher educators. The first part (Sections 3.2-3.4) a recognition that research into teacher educators' professional development needs to relate to policy and policy change, teacher educators' identity, roles and responsibilities, and the differences within the specific organisational

cultures in which they live and work. These three important areas are interrelated and interdependent. Policy change affects the professional development of teacher educators, with different roles and responsibilities within diverse organisational cultures. At the same time, teacher educators in different types of institutions with different roles and responsibilities make sense of, and respond to, policy change. The second part of the chapter (Section 3.5) has illustrated a range of concepts and dimensions in relation to the professional development of teacher educators. These two parts have established a conceptual framework for this study and inform the whole body of the research. The following chapter, Chapter 4, presents the detailed methodology of this mixed-methods study.

Chapter 4 Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter covers a review of the research methods and design appropriateness and a discussion of the population and sample. In addition, this chapter describes the data collection and analysis methods, as well as providing a consideration of ethics and validity.

4.2 Research Approach

The philosophical assumptions in this study cover a basic set of beliefs (e.g. ontology, epistemology, methodology) that guide the enquiry (Lincoln et al., 2011). A term that I have adopted in this study to describe these beliefs is worldview, which is frequently used by Creswell and Clark (2011a) to describe the beliefs that inform studies. The approaches adopted for this study are grounded in a pragmatist worldview.

4.2.1 Pragmatist Worldview

As Creswell and Clark (2011a: 43) describe, the pragmatist worldview is the ‘best’ worldview for mixed methods designs. Pragmatism is generally regarded as the philosophical partner for the mixed methods approach (Denscombe, 2008). It assumes that useful knowledge underpins the mixed-methods approach and distinguishes this approach from purely quantitative points of view, which are based on a philosophy of (post) positivism, and purely qualitative viewpoints, which are based on a philosophy of interpretivism or constructivism (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Pragmatism is a set of ideas described by many scholars, from historical figures such as Charles Sanders Peirce, William James, and John Dewey, to contemporaries, such as Cherryholmes (1992) and Murphy and Rorty (1990). Pragmatists develop their philosophy around the idea that the function of thought is to be an instrument or tool for prediction, action, and problem

solving. Pragmatists contend that most philosophical topics, such as the nature of knowledge, language, concepts, meaning, belief, and science, are best viewed in terms of their practical uses and successes rather than in terms of their precise representative accuracy. It is typically associated with mixed-methods research, which concentrates on the consequences of research, the importance of the research questions rather than the research methods, and the use of multiple methods of data collection and analysis to inform the problems in the study. Therefore it aims at ‘whatever works’, using diverse approaches, and valuing both objective and subjective knowledge (Creswell and Clark, 2011a: 41).

Ontology refers to the nature of reality, and on this, pragmatic researchers provide multiple perspectives. Epistemology refers to the relationship between the researcher and what is being researched. Pragmatists argue that the relationship is practical, because the researchers gather data through ‘whatever works’ to answer research questions. Methodology is what the actual process of research is. Pragmatists believe it is a combination of useful techniques. Researchers using mixed methods collect both quantitative data and qualitative data and mix them.

4.2.2 Applying Pragmatist Worldview to This Study

Taking a pragmatic worldview for this study is to use diverse approaches toward ‘whatever works’, and value both objective and subjective knowledge (Creswell and Clark, 2011a: 41). The idea of mixed-methods is that I use both qualitative and quantitative methods in order to better answer the question. The methods can be mixed as long as they share an ontological perspective that is that they both see the nature of the world in the same way. I have the views of a pragmatist in that I believe in using ‘whatever works’ to answer the research question. The purpose of research is to find solutions to real-world problems in a manner that means that the solutions are generalisable. I want to see the knowledge that is gained through my research transferred into a change in practice.

This study started with a concurrent online survey, in-depth interviews and focus group interviews. I used an online survey to inform the study, beginning with specific variables and empirical measures to obtain ‘objective knowledge’. For example, I used social status, income, stable position, personal dream and accidental factors as independent variables,

and reason for becoming a teacher educator as the dependent variable. I used a One-Way ANOVA to investigate the differences between groups. At the same time, by utilising the in-depth and focus group interviews, I allowed the data to speak in order to obtain 'subjective knowledge' from the interviewees. The intention was to obtain multiple meanings from the participants, to establish a deeper understanding of the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. This study collected both quantitative data and qualitative data during the same phase of the project, and merged the two datasets. Thus using the pragmatic worldview is best for the study (Creswell and Clark, 2011a: 46). Pragmatism here enabled me to adopt a pluralistic stance of gathering different types of data to best answer the research questions.

4.3 Mixed Methods Design

I implemented a mixed-methods study design, utilising both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently, and including the online *Teacher Educator Survey* and teacher educator interviews. To investigate what the professional identities of teacher educators are, and what the opportunities and challenges for the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai are, I completed fifteen interviews including nine individual interviews with three policymakers, and with six teacher educators who each came from one of the other six focus groups that were selected from the six chosen institutions. The total number of participants in this study is 252. By using a mixed-methods design, I proposed to get to the essence of the problem by asking 'what can be learnt from the interviews as informed by the quantitative survey data and what can be learnt from the quantitative survey data as informed by the interviews?'.

4.3.1 Nature of Mixed-Methods Research

In order to address the research questions, researchers must devise a strategy or, as Bryman suggests, 'a general orientation to the conduct of social research' (Bryman, 2008: 20). Mixed-methods research means that a research strategy employs more than one type of research method. This study uses quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination,

as Creswell describes:

As a methodology, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis of data and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases in the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone (Creswell and Clark, 2011a: 5).

Mixed-methods research provides more comprehensive evidence for studying the research questions than either quantitative or qualitative research alone (Creswell and Clark, 2011a: 12). Researchers are given permission to use all of the tools of data collection available rather than being restricted to the types of data collection typically associated with qualitative research or quantitative research. In this study, I identify broad characteristics in a population in relation to the research questions and see what factors influence the professional development of teacher educators. Therefore, a quantitative approach was employed. Similarly, as teacher educators are a particular group existing in society, this study needs to tell the story of this group and the individuals within it, and also needs to generate a theory about their professional development. Therefore, a qualitative approach was also selected. A quantitative approach tests and complements a qualitative approach and *vice versa*. Therefore, both of the approaches are needed for this study, and the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of the research problems than either approach alone.

4.3.2 Convergent Parallel Design

The convergent parallel design was initially conceptualised as a ‘triangulation’ design (Creswell and Clark, 2011a: 77) where the two different methods were utilised to obtain triangulated results about a single subject. This research design collects and analyses both quantitative and qualitative data during the same phase of the research process, and merges the two sets of findings into an overall interpretation.

The purpose of this design is to ‘obtain different but complementary data on the same

topic' (Morse, 1991: 122) and to best understand the research questions. Therefore this design draws on the strengths and avoids the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative methods. This design allows me to directly compare, validate, complement or expand quantitative statistical results with qualitative findings. As indicated before, the convergent parallel design enables me to collect and analyse both quantitative data and qualitative data at one time. This can raise issues in relation to the philosophical assumptions behind the research. This design works through an underpinning of mixed methods to obtain a greater understanding. Figure 4.1 illustrates how the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis were conducted during the same phase. The timing of the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis was concurrent, the priority of the two methods was equally emphasised, and the independence of both strands was maintained until the last phase of synthesis and interpretation. At the phase of data collection, I collected information by online survey and interviews with policymakers and teacher educators in Shanghai at the same time. However, there is a difference in the data collection in stage 1 and stage 2. Stage 1 was conducted as interviews with policymakers initially obtaining data to inform stage 2, which consisted of interviews with teacher educators. At the data analysis phase, I analysed and re-analysed quantitative data and qualitative data concurrently, and then at the data interpretation phase, the findings from each level were merged together into one overall interpretation.

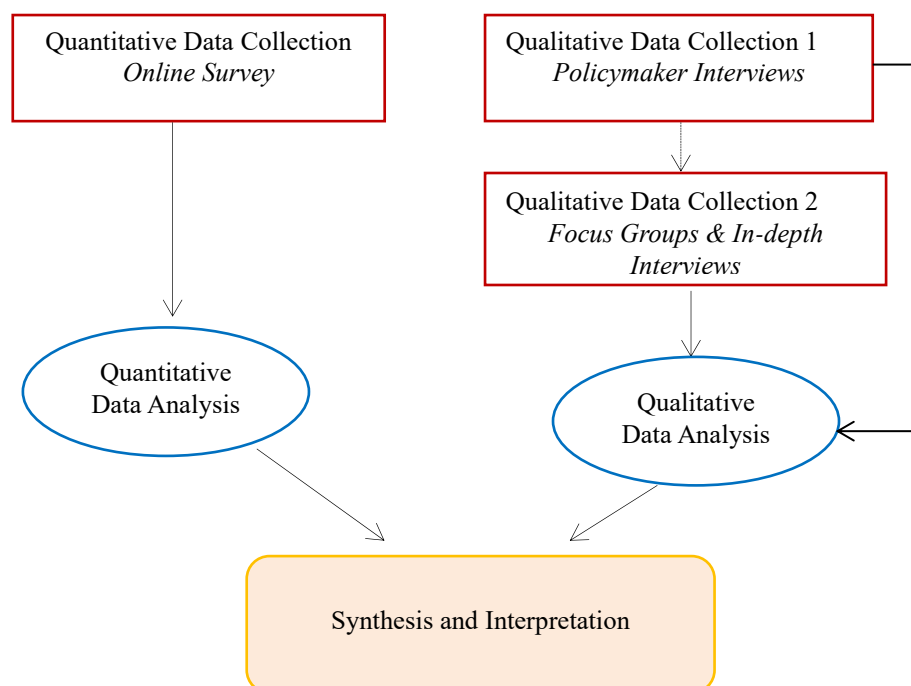


Figure 4.1 Convergent parallel mixed-methods design

4.4 Sources of Data

The sources of data used in this study are both primary and secondary. For primary data, this study consists of: (1) an online survey; (2) in-depth interviews; and (3) focus group interviews. For secondary resources, the governmental policy documents in Shanghai and China were also taken into account.

4.4.1 Primary Sources

The primary sources in this study consist of first-hand information gathered through direct communication and recordings. The major strength of primary data is that they are collected in a way specifically tailored to a particular research question, which means they are best suited to answering that question (Montello and Sutton, 2006: 36). For this reason, this study adopted an online survey, in-depth interviews, and focus group interviews to gather the primary data. The nature of the primary data collected in this study focused on concepts, facts, responses, and understandings about the professional identities and professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. The primary data formed the fundamental framework of this study and was categorised as quantitative and qualitative data in the form of numerical and verbal materials. Each instrument has its strengths and weaknesses which will be discussed in Section 4.6 Research Instruments (See p. 90), and the three instruments were designed and used in this study in order to supplement each other's weaknesses.

4.4.2 Secondary Sources

Secondary data are pre-existing data that have been collected for a different purpose or by someone other than the researcher (McGinn, 2008). The secondary sources used in this study focus on the policy documents that were published by the central government and SMEC. Most of them were available and accessible online, including governmental documents, reports, statistics etc. in relation to teacher education, in particular in relation to the development of teacher educators in the past ten years. The policy documents focus on the governments' expectations of the quality of the teacher educator workforce, and the

initiatives, requirements, regulations and supports for teacher educators.

4.5 Sampling

This section introduces the research samples, including the chosen region of Shanghai, the chosen institutions, and the chosen participants. This section also describes why and how I chose these samples.

4.5.1 Chosen Region – Shanghai

Shanghai is the largest city by population in China. The city is one of four municipalities with the status of a province (the others are Beijing, Tianjin and Chongqing), with a total population of over 23.8 million, of whom 14.2 million are permanent residents, and 9.6 million are temporary (Shanghai Municipal Statistics Bureau, 2013). In 2012, Shanghai's GDP was US Dollar 13,525 per capita. While its population and land account for 1% and 0.06 % of the nation respectively, it contributes one-twentieth of China's income (Shanghai Municipal Statistics Bureau, 2013). Shanghai is a major financial centre and the busiest container port in the world. Located in Eastern China, Shanghai sits at the main mouth of the Yangtze River Delta. The municipality borders Jiangsu and Zhejiang Provinces to the west, and is bounded to the east by the East China Sea (See Figure 4.2).



Figure 4.2 Location of Shanghai in China

Shanghai is administratively equal to a province and is divided into seventeen county-level divisions: sixteen districts and one county. Shanghai is divided into three parts (see figure

4.3): Puxi, Pudong and Chongming Island. Eight districts make up Puxi (Huangpu West Bank), the older part of urban Shanghai on the west bank of the Huangpu River. These eight districts are collectively referred to as the core city of Shanghai: Huangpu District; Xuhui District; Changning District; Jing'an District; Putuo District; Zhabei District; Hongkou District; and Yangpu District. Pudong (Huangpu East Bank), the newer part of urban and suburban Shanghai on the east bank of the Huangpu River, is governed by Pudong New District. Seven of the districts cover suburbs, satellite towns, and rural areas further away from the urban core: Baoshan District; Minhang District; Jiading District; Jinshan District; Songjiang District; Qingpu District; and Fengxian District. Chongming Island, an island at the mouth of the Yangtze, is governed by Chongming County. As of 2012, these county-level divisions are further divided into the following 209 township-level divisions, which include 108 towns, 2 townships, and 99 sub-districts. Those are in turn divided into village-level divisions of 3,850 neighbourhood committees and 1,632 village committees (Shanghai Office of Local Chronicles, 2013).



Figure 4.3 Districts in Shanghai

Shanghai is a more feasible region for this study than other Chinese regions. Below are four reasons as to why I chose Shanghai as a case study.

Firstly, Shanghai is the largest city by population in China, and the largest city by population in the world. It has been a hot spot for economic development, and now has the highest GDP per capita of all Chinese cities (Mao and Liu, 2012). It has undergone the

most recent reforms and is also a model for reforms in other places of China. Therefore it is able to offer the most up-to-date data.

Secondly, Shanghai has one of the best education systems in China. It is the first city in the country to implement 9-year compulsory education. The 2010 census shows that out of Shanghai's total population, 22.0% had a college education. In 2009 and 2012, Shanghai twice took the top spot in the latest round of the most comprehensive assessment of the world's state schools. According to the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) results, Shanghai's students, including migrant children, scored highest in every aspect (Maths, Reading and Science) in the world (OECD, 2010a; OECD, 2013). Shanghai has become an important reference for other places within the global education policy field (Sellar and Lingard, 2013; Sellar and Lingard, 2014). Sellar and Lingard claim that public-funded schools in Shanghai have the highest educational quality in the world. This implies that this quality is the result of high quality of the teachers which in turn is the result of the high quality of teacher education.

Thirdly, Shanghai is a major centre of higher education in China with over 30 universities and colleges. Some of China's most prestigious universities which focus on teacher education and which have a sound teacher education system and quality are based in Shanghai, including East China Normal University (ECNU) and Shanghai Normal University (SHNU).

Finally, Shanghai is undertaking reforms and innovations in teacher education as a pilot for the country. Shanghai is the first city in mainland China to establish the system of Newly Qualified Teacher Registration, and a one-year Induction Scheme, as well as a number of professional development schools for school teachers, student teachers and probationer teachers (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2011b).

4.5.2 Chosen Initial Teacher Education Institutions

Initial teacher education in Shanghai is currently conducted in six higher education institutions, i.e. ECNU, SHNU, Shanghai International Studies University (SISU), Xingjian College (XC), Tianhua College (TC) of SHNU and XCEH of SISU. They can be divided into different types of sector. The first four institutions are in the public sector and

the last two are independent. The first three are universities and the second three are colleges. The first two are mostly in charge of the training of post-preschool teachers for Shanghai, and the last three are mainly responsible for the training of nursery teachers for Shanghai (See Table 4.1).

Title of Institution	Description of the institution
East China Normal University (ECNU)	A national normal university and a comprehensive university. The only national level normal university located in East China, and one of the four 985 universities in Shanghai. Under direct auspices of the Ministry of Education. Sponsored by prestigious national projects 211 and 985.
Shanghai Normal University (SHNU)	A local provincial level normal university and a comprehensive university that provides the majority of graduate school teachers for Shanghai city. A key university of Shanghai City, under the direct auspices of Shanghai.
Shanghai International Studies University (SISU)	A comprehensive university that has successfully developed a diverse and distinctive mix of disciplines with language and literacy as its pillar. Under direct auspices of the Ministry of Education and Shanghai, sponsored by the prestigious national project 211.
Shanghai Xingjian College (XC)	A higher vocational college that trains teachers and future technical employees. Under the direct auspices of Zhabei District, Shanghai. The College possesses one major discipline – Pre-school Education.
Tianhua College of SHNU (TC)	An independent comprehensive college governed by Shanghai. The College possesses three major disciplines—Pre-school, Primary and Arts Education.
Xianda College of Economics and Humanities of SISU (XCEH)	An independent comprehensive college governed by Shanghai. The College possesses two major disciplines—Pre-school Education (established in 2010) and Musicology.

Table 4.1 Institutions for initial teacher education in Shanghai

Four institutions from the six listed above were chosen for this study: ECNU, SHNU, XC and TC. Even though Shanghai International Studies University is a comprehensive university in Shanghai, teacher education in this university makes up only a small percentage of the university's programmes. There are fewer than one hundred students (at most one third training to be school teachers), only one programme of teacher education, and fewer than ten teacher educators specialised in training English school teachers. This situation is not appropriate to represent the whole picture of teacher education in the

universities in Shanghai. In the light of ECNU and SHNU being the main teacher education providers, I removed SISU from the research sample list. Likewise, the Education Department was newly established in SCEH at the time of selecting my sample, and the scale of the department is smaller than XC and TC, so XC and TC were chosen instead of SCEH. Brief features of the chosen four initial teacher education institutions are introduced, as follows.

East China Normal University (ECNU)

ECNU is a typical representative of the national level normal universities that are directed and sponsored by the Ministry of Education of China and serve each of the five geographical zones of China. There are only five top normal universities of this type.¹⁰ This type of university is responsible for both pre-service and in-service teacher education. Due to historical reasons, they are actually comprehensive universities but are entitled ‘normal universities’. Like other comprehensive universities, they have different subjects covering humanities, social sciences and natural science, but teacher education is still one of their main tasks.

Founded in Shanghai in October 1951, ECNU is one of the most prestigious universities in China and is sponsored by the national programmes, Project 211 and Project 985 (See Glossary, p. 221 and p.222, respectively). At present, the University has 21 schools and colleges, and 5 advanced research institutes, with 58 departments offering 70 undergraduate programs in humanities, education, science, engineering, economics, management, philosophy, psychology, law, history and art. Apart from these, the University also offers 26 doctoral programmes from the State Primary Disciplines, 38 Master’s programmes from the State Primary Disciplines, and one professional doctoral programme, 17 professional Master’s programs and 18 post-doctoral mobile research stations. As the first normal university founded in the country after the establishment of the PRC, ECNU has kept teacher training as one of its main features since its establishment. A large number of outstanding teachers and educationalists have been trained for the nation here (East China Normal University, 2014). Apart from the core teacher preparation by the College of

¹⁰ Including ECNU, which is located in East China; Beijing Normal University, which is located in North China; Northeast Normal University, which is located in Northeast China; Central China Normal University, which is located in Central China; Shaanxi Normal University, which is located in Northwest China, and Southwest University, which is located in Southwest China.

Education, many departments train teachers in the specific subject. For example, mathematics teachers are trained by the Department of Mathematics in the College of Mathematics, and history teachers are trained by the Department of History in the College of History. As the University students come from different regions around the country and there are issues of *Hukou* (Shanghai's Permanent Residential Status, see Glossary, p.220), some of them do not work in Shanghai. Due to this, ECNU is not the main teacher training base for Shanghai.

Shanghai Normal University (SHNU)

In contrast to ECNU, SHNU is the only provincial level normal university in Shanghai, even though SHNU has a similar system of teaching and research to ECNU. SHNU has 17 colleges and 104 research institutes. By September 2012, SHNU had trained over 150 thousand school teachers and leaders which is 70% of the number of teachers in Shanghai (Shanghai Normal University, 2014b). Like other provincial-level normal universities, SHNU has its own teacher education system, which is divided into different departments; for example, the department of English in the Foreign Language College trains English teachers for basic education. In the same way, political teachers are educated in the Department of History in the Social Science College. So it is a typical example of the province-level normal universities for regions across China.

Shanghai Xingjian College (XC)

Shanghai Xingjian College is the only higher vocational college for training nursery teachers under the sponsorship and management of the Zhabei District Government, Shanghai. The Pre-school Department is the only department for teacher training in the college, and in it there are 37 teacher educators who teach different subjects, such as pre-school theory, art education and teaching methods etc. The department has over ten years' experience and has trained over 3,000 nursery teachers who work in the different districts around Shanghai. This accounts for over half of the number of nursery teachers in Shanghai (Shanghai Xingjian College, 2014).

Shanghai Normal University Tianhua College (TC)

Tianhua College was jointly established by SHNU and Shanghai Tianhua Education and Culture Investment Company in 2005 with the approval of the Ministry of Education. As an independent college with a number of full-time undergraduate programmes, Tianhua College enrolls students and confers undergraduate diplomas and degrees independently but the teaching and administrative work is carried out in accordance with the objectives of education and curricula determined by SHNU (Shanghai Normal University Tianhua College, 2014). Tianhua College has the only Department of Education which carries out three programmes: pre-school education, primary education and art education. These 3 to 4 years of training lead to undergraduate diplomas and degrees for their graduates, and most of them work in nurseries and primary schools.

ECNU and SHNU are universities that train the majority of school teachers for Shanghai, in particular primary and secondary school teachers. They typically represent national and regional levels of pre-service teacher training institution that are not only for initial teacher education, but provide some in-service teacher education for Shanghai. Shanghai Xingjian College and Tianhua College are examples which allow us to explore the teacher educators who train pre-school and primary school teachers in the college sector.

4.5.3 Chosen In-Service Teacher Education Institutions

As described in Chapter 2 (See p.29), in-service teacher training was mainly the responsibility of the teacher training schools in each district/county. Shanghai has 17 teacher training schools: 16 district teacher training schools and 1 county teacher training school, of which 8 are located in the core city and 9 are located in the suburbs. Each district/county has one teacher training school for managing, organising and training school teachers. As the regular work of a teacher training school is governed by the Institute of Teaching Research, which is an affiliated sector of SMEC, teacher training schools are actually sub-institutes of the Institute of Teaching Research. Teaching researchers, who work in teacher training schools, are responsible for training in-service school teachers, observing classes and giving feedback, writing examination papers and assessing the results for schools within their districts (See Glossary, p.223).

The online survey invited responses from the different teacher training schools across Shanghai; thus all the teacher training schools in Shanghai were involved in this study. This allowed me to obtain abundant responses from all the teacher training schools and abundant quantitative results.

In terms of qualitative data collection, the participants who worked in Putuo and Songjiang (District) Teacher Training Schools were chosen as representatives of in-service teacher education institutions for this study. Putuo Teacher Training School (PTTS) is located in the area of the core city of Shanghai, and Songjiang Teacher Training School (STTS) is located in the suburb of the city. Therefore, I chose Putuo Teacher Training School as one of the eight teacher training schools located in the core city while I chose Songjiang Teacher Training School as one example of the nine teacher training schools in the suburbs of Shanghai. Another intention of choosing these samples was to understand whether there was a similar weight of professional development for in-service teacher educators across Shanghai.

I finally rejected the Shanghai Teacher Training Centre as an example of an in-service teacher education institution, even though I had collected data from this institution, as it is actually an organisation for training management of SMEC, rather than a teacher training organisation. There are only 24 staff in the Shanghai Teacher Training Centre, and only a few of them are involved in teacher education as teacher educators.

4.6 Research Instruments

This section describes the research instruments: the Online Teacher Educator Survey, Focus Group and In-depth Interviews.

4.6.1 Online Teacher Educator Survey

The aim of conducting the Online Teacher Educator Survey was to engage as large a sample of teacher educators as possible in this study. In social research, the survey is a commonly used instrument. Wilson and McClean (1994) point out that the questionnaire is

widely used for collecting survey information because it provides structured, often numerical, data, is able to be administered without the presence of the researcher, and produces results which are often comparatively straightforward to analyse. The questionnaire has its limitations. Pring (2004: 38-39) indicates that “two people might each answer ‘yes’ to one question but mean different things due to their personal, unquantifiable perspectives or predilections. Too many questions raise issues on which there is disagreement over interpretation as well as over the facts”. Therefore, there is a need to use other complementary research methods.

The reason for choosing this online survey is because large amounts of information can be collected from a large number of people in a short period of time and in a relatively cost effective way. The information can be collected and analysed more scientifically and objectively than from other forms of research. Also, it can be carried out by the researcher with limited effect on its validity and reliability; and when data has been quantified, it can be used to compare and contrast with other research and may be used to measure change. In addition, the respondents could complete the survey at whatever time they wanted, which was convenient for them. The results were available in ‘real time’, which saved much more time for both the respondents and the researcher.

The purpose of this research survey was to explore teacher educators’ perceptions of their professional identities and professional development in Shanghai. All survey questions were framed, after careful consideration, to be closely connected with the research aims and the research questions. The online Teacher Educator Survey was intended to address the following main issues of the study: motivation for becoming a teacher educator; career pathway for becoming a teacher educator; distinctive knowledge and competencies of teacher educators; professional commitment and loyalty in their work; approaches to professional development; professional development needs; and support for professional development (A copy of the questionnaire can be seen Appendix K, p. 234).

I adopted a number of techniques in order to collect as accurate data as possible. I conducted a pilot before conducting the large scale online survey by asking some early participants who did not participate in the main survey to give comments and suggestions. Some feedback was obtained and some survey questions were amended. Meanwhile, a clear Plain Language Statement (PLS) (See Appendix A, p. 224) was produced and I also asked some of the early participants to check whether they could understand what the study

was about, and what they were being asked to do, before I started to recruit the study participants through email. In order to have an easily accessible web platform for the survey, I purchased a one-year licence from the online survey platform, Survey Monkey. Before I sent the link for the website to the participants, I wrote emails to recruit potential participants with the PLS as an attachment. Sixty per cent of the emails sent received positive replies. Ultimately, 252 respondents successfully filled out the online questionnaires.

4.6.2 Focus Groups

A focus group consists of individuals who interact with group members rather than the researcher, and this kind of group interviewing is a useful method of conducting interviews because it involves less tension than a face-to-face interview, so the group may provide more information. Focus groups generate a rich understanding of the participants' experiences and beliefs that can be heard through the group discussions and the researcher can obtain the information that participants provide. In focus groups, as Cohen et al. (2003: 288) point out, 'it is from the interaction within the group that the data emerges'. A focus group is an alternative option because through group discussions individual participants may be likely to talk more than in a one-on-one interview. Participants may interact with each other rather than with the interviewer and the views of the participants can emerge.

Focus group interviews gave me a particular understanding of what the participants discussed, and even argued about, in the groups on the specific issues. As some of the research questions were concerned with the participants' perspectives, such as professional activities and more effective approaches to professional development, listening to a group discussion and even a group debate was a more effective way to obtain detailed information related to the research questions. This was an advantage that one-to-one interviews would not be able to achieve. The focus group interviews also built a sound foundation to base the in-depth interviews on, because I had opportunities to verify the results through comparing data between the focus group interviews and the in-depth interviews.

The research questions for the focus group interviews were carefully considered. The interview questions were also sent to some of the early participants to get feedback. The

interview questions primarily focused on the following themes: professional roles and responsibilities of teacher educators in Shanghai, including distinctive knowledge and competencies of teacher educators, professional commitment and loyalty in their work; and professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai, including approaches, needs, and support. (A copy of the themes for focus groups can be seen Appendix J, p. 233).

Overall, six focus groups were conducted in this study, including participants who worked in ECNU, SHNU, XC, TC, PTTS and STTS. There were five people, each from a different one of the above institutions, in each focus group, as Morgan (1998) suggests that smaller groups are preferable when participants are likely to have a lot to say on the research topic. The recruitment of the participants in this study was based on their work experience and the institution where they worked as teacher educators for either pre-service teacher education or in-service teacher education. Before I recruited the potential participants, I also made a PLS and a Consent Form (See Appendix D, p. 227 and Appendix E, p. 228) as had been discussed with my supervisors and reviewed by the University Ethics Committee. All participants were recruited through email. I obtained the permission of all the participants before conducting the interviews, and the consent forms were signed by the interviewees before the start of the focus group interviews.

In total, 6 focus groups were formed, each of which had 5 participants. The participants were involved in two types of group (pre-service and in-service) within the six chosen institutions. There were four pre-service based focus groups, within each of which were 5 teacher educators who came from ECNU, SHNU, XC and TC, while there were two in-service-based groups, within each of which were 5 teacher educators who came from PTTS and STTS. In the light of the needs of the research, they allowed me take an audio recording during the interviews. The focus group interview transcripts have been attached.

4.6.3 In-depth Interviews

The in-depth interview serves three purposes, according to Cohen et al. (2003: 268-269): firstly, it is useful as the principal means of gathering information having direct bearing on the research objectives; secondly, it is used to test hypotheses, or to suggest new ones, or as an exploratory device to help identify variables and relationships; and thirdly, the interview

may be used in conjunction with other methods in research. The in-depth interview is reflexive and reactive, and can be either formal or informal. In this study, the in-depth interviews allowed me to develop a deep understanding of knowledge and insights in relation to the professional identities and professional development of teacher educators in each setting that this study investigated.

They were two types of in-depth interviews conducted in this study, i.e. policymaker interviews and teacher educator interviews. Policymaker interviews were conducted by interviewing three Chinese influential experts who work in teacher education (See Chapter 2, p. 40). This was to develop a deep understanding of the policies on teacher education, in particular the policies in relation to the professional development of teacher educators. Whether the policies were made for schools or for teacher educators, their concerns and how they were implemented in China and in Shanghai were beneficial for understanding the ‘policy strand’ for this study. These three interviewees are listed in Table 4.2.

Policymaker	Institution worked in	Titles in relation to teacher education
Professor Mingyuan Gu	Beijing Normal University (BNU)	Chair of the Committee of Teacher Education (2003-) The former chair of the China Education Society (2000-2012)
Professor Qiquan Zhong	ECNU	The former leader of the research team for Curriculum Standards for Teacher Education (2008-2011) The former leader of the National New Curriculum Revolution at the beginning of the 21 st century
Mrs. Hong Sun	SMEC	Deputy Director of Department of Teacher Education (2010-)

Table 4.2 Policymakers who were involved in the in-depth interviews

These three experts were interviewed before interviewing the teacher educators in order to obtain an understanding of the policy context, which in turn informed the teacher educator focus group interviews and in-depth interviews. The interview questions varied with the interviewees. I interviewed both Professor Gu and Professor Zhong using a similar interview schedule that mainly focused on national policymaking (See Appendix I, p. 232). The relevant points were about the policies on teacher education in China, their perspectives on the professional identities of teacher educators in China, and the policies on the professional development of teacher educators in China. My interview with Mrs Sun

focused on Shanghai's policy making and implementation in relation to teacher education (See Appendix H, p. 231). In the light of the presentation on the research context, the perspectives of these three experts are discussed in Chapter 2 (See p. 40). As I stated in Section 2.5.3 (See p. 40), because there is a lot of repetition between the policy documents that were recently published in Shanghai and the perspectives that Mrs. Sun indicated in her interview, I refer to Shanghai's policy documents instead of Mrs Sun's perspectives.

These three experts were invited by email. Before I interviewed them, I sent them a PLS and the consent forms (See Appendix C, p. 226 and Appendix F, p. 229), and permission was obtained. In the light of the needs of the research, they allowed me use their real names in my thesis and to take an audio recording during the interviews.

The second type of in-depth interview was with teacher educators who work in one of the chosen six institutions. Each of them came from one of the 5-people focus groups on each institution (i.e. ECNU, SHNU, XC, TC, PTTS and STTS). This allowed me to confirm and question many points which contradicted the discussions in the focus group interviews in which he/she was involved. The results from both the focus group interviews and the in-depth interviews enabled me to draw on the advantages of each instrument and avoid the weaknesses. It also provided a good opportunity to complement and test the information that I had collected.

The interview questions for the teacher educator interviews were mainly focused on the professional identities and the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai (Interview schedules can be seen in Appendix G, p. 230). The specific aspects aimed to obtain a deep understanding of the interviewees' perspectives. All the interview questions were in line with the interview questions used in the focus groups, which enabled me to obtain multiple viewpoints on the reality of the professional roles, work and the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. Before I interviewed them, I also sent them a PLS and the consent forms (See Appendix B, p. 225 and Appendix E, p. 228), and permission was obtained.

I consider myself as an interpreter who observes, records, and tries to refine the issues. Through the interactions of the interviews, information was collected. The interview schedule had four sections, with three to five questions in each (See Appendix G, p. 230). The interviews were all audio recorded by the researcher with full permission of the participants. With the process of audio records, I focused on the topics and the particular

usage of words of the interviewees. The in-depth interviews were conducted in Mandarin on a one-to-one basis in each interviewee's office or workplace.

4.7 Data Collection

Over the process of three months, I conducted the interviews and the survey concurrently. In conducting interviews, three policymaker interviews were carried out before the eight focus group interviews and eight teacher educator in-depth interviews, as I intended to gather data to inform the procedure of further data gathering. I conducted the focus group interviews before the one-to-one interviews, because I decided to use individual interview data to validate the data from these interviews. The online survey of a total sample of 305 teacher educators across Shanghai was gathered at the data collection stage. I ultimately selected six focus groups, six teacher educators' interviews, three policymaker interviews and a sample of 252 from the online survey as the data source. As stated in Section 4.6.2 above, considering the appropriateness of the sample, I removed SISU and STTC from my study (See p. 92). Therefore, two of the focus groups, two of the individual interviews and 53 survey responses were removed.

4.7.1 Online Survey Participants Recruitment and Demographics

The source of data for the online survey consisted of 252 respondents who were involved in the Teacher Educator Survey (See Appendix K, p. 234). The selection criteria for participation in the survey required that participants be active teacher educators in a university-based, college-based or teacher training school-based institution of teacher education. Once teacher educators decided to follow the link and complete the online survey, they navigated to the Survey Monkey webpage at <https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/C6RF3FH> and were introduced to the study with a PLS (See Appendix A, p. 224).

As the Teacher Educator Survey was an online questionnaire, participants could access the survey anywhere. As internet is available throughout Shanghai, both in the cities and rural areas, it was convenient for each of the participants. They were recruited by 75 emails. The

respondents were asked to read the PLS that was attached and, if they were willing to participate, they were asked to fill out the online survey by clicking the link to the website in the emails. Some of the respondents were invited through the respondents who had already decided to participate and were willing to send my invitations to their colleagues with the PLS, with my email address copied in, so that I could be sure that the respondents had read the PLS and were happy to participate in this study. I recruited anonymous teacher educator participants through a ‘snowball’ approach as the Survey Monkey webpage was linked through email correspondence. In addition, I also asked the participants to recommend to their colleagues that they get involved in the survey. The interview participants’ recruitment was conducted at the beginning of February 2013 after the University Ethics Committee had approved my application for the fieldwork. The email addresses of the staff of each institution were available and accessible online, and this allowed me to invite them by email. I minimised the risks that the respondents would experience any disclosure of their responses outside the research that could reasonably place the participants at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the participants’ financial standing, employability, or reputation.

The demographic characteristics of the total teacher educator sample reflected that females were in the majority in Shanghai (63.9%), and more teacher educators were within the age group 31–50 (70.2%). Of the participants, 64.3% had a Master’s degree or above, the majority of the teacher educators were involved in subject group two (i.e. subjects in the humanities and social sciences, 63.5%), 46.8% of the teacher educators had senior titles, and almost half of the participants had more than 10 years’ teaching experience. Table 4.3 lists the demographic variables for the teacher educator survey respondents.

There are six chosen institutions (i.e. ECNU, SHNU, XC, TC, PTTS and STTS) that can be divided into three categories (i.e. university-based, college-based and school-based). Table 4.3 shows that there was a significant association between the gender of participants and the highest level of qualification they have attained (χ^2 45.267, df =2, p <0.01), although the strength of the association was weak to moderate (Cramer’s V =.424, p <0.01). Females were relatively more likely than males to have a degree or lower qualification, while males were relatively more likely to have a Master level qualification. In addition, there was a significant association in the sample between gender and sector of employment (χ^2 67.584, df =2, p <0.01), although the strength of the association was moderate

(Cramer's $V=.518$, $p<0.01$). Males were relatively more likely to be from the university sector, while females were relatively more likely to be in the college or school sector.

% Gender	University		College		School		Total
	ECNU	SHNU	XC	TC	TTS-C	TTS-S	
Male	72.7	62.5	13.3	13.3	23.8	13.8	36.1
Female	27.3	37.5	86.7	86.7	76.2	86.2	63.9
Age							
<30	13.6	16.7	33.3	50.0	2.4	3.4	17.5
31-40	36.4	31.3	36.7	40.0	23.8	20.7	32.1
41-50	29.5	41.7	23.3	3.3	64.3	62.1	38.1
51+	20.5	10.4	6.7	6.7	9.5	13.8	12.3
Highest Q							
<Degree			30.0	23.3	38.1	36.2	
Degree	2.3	6.3	66.7	60.0	42.9	48.3	35.7
Master+	97.7	93.8	3.3	16.7	19.0	15.5	64.3
Subject							
Group 1	18.2	45.8	13.3	33.3	2.4	48.3	21.0
Group 2	50.0	33.3	76.7	50.0	50.0	32.8	63.5
Group 3	31.8	20.8	10.0	16.7	47.6	19.0	15.5
Title							
None	4.5		10.0	10.0			3.2
Junior	4.5		23.3	33.3			13.1
Intermediate	11.4	50.0	46.7	36.7	4.8	3.4	36.9
Senior	84.1	50.0	20.0	20.0	95.2	96.6	46.8
Experience							
1-5 years	15.9	31.3	36.7	53.3	2.4	20.7	30.6
6-10 years	40.9	27.1	36.7	36.7	21.4	56.9	23.0
11+ years	43.2	41.7	26.7	10.0	76.2	22.4	46.4

Table 4.3 Demographic variables of the teacher educator respondents by sector in Shanghai

There was also a significant association between the sector the participants were employed in (University, College and School) and the highest qualification obtained (χ^2 162.410, $df=2$, $p<0.01$). The strength of the association was moderate (Cramer's $V=.568$, $p<0.01$). Those from a college or school background were relatively more likely to have only a degree or lower qualifications while those from a university background tended to be relatively more likely than others to have a Masters level qualification. Finally, there was a significant association between time spent working as an educator and the sector of employment (χ^2 24.455, $df=2$, $p<0.01$) with those from school relatively more likely to have a greater range of experience than others at all levels of experience, although the strength of the association is weak (Cramer's $V=.220$, $p<0.01$). The results suggest that more males worked as teacher educators in the university sector, while more females worked as teacher educators in the college and teacher training school sectors. The results also suggest that teacher educators from the university sector were likely to have higher

qualifications than those from the college and school sectors, while teacher educators from the school sector are likely to have more teaching experience in schools than those from the university and college sectors. The results show that background characteristics were related to the sector they were employed in. For example, more university teacher educators were male while more college and school teacher educators were female; university teacher educators were likely to have the highest qualifications and titles and the majority of them were male; the college-based teacher educators were relatively likely to possess lower qualifications and titles and the majority of them were female, while the school-based teacher educators were relatively likely to possess more school experience, and the majority of them were female.

4.7.2 Interview Participant Recruitment and Demographics

The source of data for the interviews consisted of 32 interviewees within 6 focus groups and 9 in-depth interviews including 2 policymaker in-depth interviews (Mrs Sun's interview has been removed, see p.95) and 6 teacher educator in-depth interviews.

Person	Sex	Age Group	Institution	Person	Sex	Age Group	Institution
FG01a	M	41–50	ECNU	FG04a	F	25–30	TC
FG01b/ II01	M	41–50	ECNU	FG04b	F	Under 25	TC
FG01c	M	31–40	ECNU	FG04c	F	Under 25	TC
FG01d	M	50+	ECNU	FG04d/II04	F	25–30	TC
FG01e	M	41–50	ECNU	FG04e	F	Under 25	TC
FG02a	M	31–40	SHNU	FG05a	F	31–40	PTTS
FG02b	M	50+	SHNU	FG05b	F	41–50	PTTS
FG02c/II02	M	41–50	SHNU	FG05c	F	41–50	PTTS
FG02d	M	41–50	SHNU	FG05d/II05	F	50+	PTTS
FG02e	F	41–50	SHNU	FG05e	F	41–50	PTTS
FG03a	F	50+	XC	FG06a	F	41–50	STTS
FG03b/II03	F	41–50	XC	FG06b	F	41–50	STTS
FG03c	F	31–40	XC	FG06c	F	41–50	STTS
FG03d	F	31–40	XC	FG06d	F	41–50	STTS
FG03e	F	31–40	XC	FG06e/II06	F	41–50	STTS

Table 4.4 Interview participant sources and demographics

The selection criteria for participation in the interviews were purposeful and required the participants to be active in specific institutions. Two policymakers had to be experts who

had rich experience and had led some projects on policymaking for teacher education for the state. The remaining 6 in-depth interviewees were selected from each of the six focus group interviewees, namely, one in-depth interviewee was selected from each of the 5-people focus groups. Therefore, there were a total 32 people involved in the qualitative data collection. The participants' pseudonym, gender, age group and institutional demographics can be seen in Table 4.4.

The six individual interviewees came from each of the six focus groups. This was to gather richer information and to validate the information that gathered from the focus groups that the interviewees participated in. In terms of identifying the interviewees, for ethical reasons I used an interviewee-naming scheme with the relevant information about each person included to protect the participant's identity. In the identifiers, the first letters stands for the category of the instrument used – the 'II' means 'in-depth interview', and the 'FG' means 'Focus Group'; the first and the second numbers stand for the identifiers of the institution. The following is the description of the in-depth interviewees.

II01 This interviewee is a 47-year old male teacher educator who works at ECNU. He teaches and studies in comparative and international education. He is an associate professor and has worked at this university for more than ten years. Currently, he is the Party Branch Secretary in the Department.

II02 This interviewee works at SHNU. He obtained his Ph.D. from ECNU, and has worked in SHNU for more than 10 years. He mainly focuses on educational theory and teacher education. He is a middle level manager in the university. He has switched between seven different positions since he began working.

II03 This interviewee is an associate professor at XC, which has launched a department of pre-school education. She is a teacher of children's literacy. She is also a middle level manager in the college.

II04 This interviewee is a first year college teacher who teaches Education of Pre-school at TC.

II05 This interviewee is a teacher trainer at PTTS. He teaches school teachers Chinese literacy. He also has 40 years' experience of training school teachers.

II06 This interviewee is a Teaching Researcher who works at STTS. She guides English teachers in junior secondary schools.

4.8 Data Analysis

The following section presents the mixed-data analysis procedures used for the qualitative and quantitative data, including ethical considerations and validity.

4.8.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

The full raw survey results could be downloaded at any time from a secure and licensed account held at the Survey Monkey Website, <https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/C6RF3FH>. Once I had accessed and downloaded the survey results, ranging from the survey's initial 'live' release in February, 2013 to the most recent in January, 2014, I filed and organised the .xls spreadsheets in my computer. I filed the digital survey data in various forms, organised by months, depending on how the information was cleaned for various inquiries. I analysed the statistical results from the 252 teacher educators who completed the Teacher Educator Survey using SPSS and EXCEL software. Chapters 5–6 detail the results and validity of the statistics in full.

One of the members of staff of the School of Education at the University of Glasgow, Dr Muir Huston, and I were the only two people to access the survey data. The results were described in two ways: an evidence description and a description based on a comparative analysis between the population sample analysis and the analysis of three samples (University-based, College-based and Teacher training school-based) from the population sample. I also focused on the key research questions and their correlative factors in the questionnaire. Some assumptions were made and tested using SPSS tests (e. g. T-test, One-Way ANOVA). For example, I wanted to find out if that the choices for professional learning of teacher educators in Shanghai had been strongly influenced by their length of time as a teacher educator. In addition, correlation analysis was used to understand the relationships between the two variables; for example, the relationships between professional attraction and retention, and gender, age and educational background.

4.8.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

After digitally audio-recording and transcribing the interviews, I sorted, coded, and categorised the qualitative data in a ‘systematic and meaningful way’ (Brantlinger et al., 2005). This section outlines the analysis procedures in detail.

I recorded all fourteen interviews on a handheld, Sony Digital Voice Recorder ICD-PX312M device. Each file was saved on the device as an mp3 file. I downloaded the audio files onto my laptop. This laptop was stored in a code case with my own password-lock. I edited the files as needed. At this point, each interview file was ready for transcription.

I listened to each audio file through Windows Media Player, which was installed onto my laptop, using headphones, and typed the interviews into a Microsoft Word document in Chinese initially. I transcribed each interview almost word for word, but ignored all the ‘ums’ and background noises. If an interviewee mentioned any personal information or proper names/locations, I coded it with an ‘XX’ and timestamp. I referred to the interviewees by their codes (e.g. FG01a) and myself as ‘Q’ throughout the transcriptions. After the completion of all transcriptions, I listened to the audio files again, and amended the transcripts that I had made, ensuring that I had not missed anything from the audio files (Interview transcripts can be seen in Appendix M, see p.241).

I translated all the transcripts from Chinese into English, again word for word¹¹. To get them right, I discussed my interview transcriptions with a native speaker during our regular English conversations that had lasted more than a year. To further make sure, I employed a member of the Society of Editors and Proofreaders in Glasgow to proofread the completed translations, and discussed the interview transcripts through emails to ensure as accurate a translation of meaning as possible although the limitations of translation from Chinese to English are acknowledged.

I kept two data files for each participant: a digital file folder and hardcopy version of those files. All email correspondence related to this research was kept in, and accessed from, my laptop account. The digital file folders were stored and frequently backed-up on the following password protected devices: my personal laptop computer, a portable 16 GB Sony thumb drive, one 60 GB DELL external hard drive locked in a code case located at

¹¹ Chinese personal pronouns are gender neutral, this has been indicated by transcribing ‘ta’ as ‘he/she’.

my home. An example of the digital file folder for Participant II01 would contain the following: II01_interview.mp3; II01_transcript (in Chinese).doc; II01_transcript (in English).doc; the relevant file folders for the participants would contain the following: signed consent form, notes about times and dates for interviews, maps, and other travel documents. This information was stored securely at my home or my office.

In terms of coding of the data, at first, I carefully read each of the three policymaker interview transcripts and pencilled notes comprehensively on each, ‘to obtain a general sense of the information and to reflect on its overall meaning’ (Creswell, 2003: 191). Secondly, I opened a doc file for each interviewee and systematically coded my notes, selected quoted material into categories and labelled those categories. At times, I used terminology based on the language of the participant, known as *in vivo* terms. At the same time, I wrote memos when I had some thoughts on specific points. Next, I began the final process of theme identification to identify recurring topics or characteristics of professional roles and responsibilities and professional development of teacher educators (An example of coded transcript is attached as Appendix L, see p.239). In general, I followed the Miles and Huberman (1994: 10) comparative analysis matrix for analysis of the data. They define three ‘flows of activity’ in data analysis as: ‘data reduction, data display, and conclusion-drawing/verification’. At the ‘data reduction’ stage, the interview transcripts were reduced and organised by coding, writing summaries, and discarding irrelevant data – but I still ensured that I had access to it later if required to re-examine some unexpected findings that might have been previously considered unnecessary. At the ‘data display’ stage, I drew conclusions from the data in the form of tables, charts and networks. At the ‘conclusion drawing/verification’ stage, my analysis allowed me to begin to develop conclusions regarding my study. These initial conclusions were then verified, that is, their validity was examined through reference to my existing field notes.

4.8.3 Analytical Synthesis and Integration

The results of the independent analyses discussed above were combined at the interpretation stage of the research. The integrated data analysis strategies involved using analytic techniques for integrating the results and for assessing whether the results from the two databases were congruent or divergent (Creswell and Clark, 2011a: 223), or complementary (Pearson et al., 2014). For example, I had a quantitative database, which

was produced through a survey on the platform Survey Monkey, and a qualitative database which was collected by means of both focus group interviews and in-depth interviews. I analysed the findings produced from one of these two databases and then compared them with the corresponding findings on the other database to determine whether they were divergent, congruent or complimentary. If they were divergent, I would further analyse the data from either Survey Monkey or the interviews. In this study, the strategies for integrating the two databases mainly involved a comparison of the results through two methods, namely: (a) side-by-side comparisons in the discussion, and (b) data transformation in the results (transforming one type of data into the other type of data).

The first strategy for integrating data is a side-by-side comparison of both the quantitative and the qualitative findings in order to allow for synthesised data analysis which involves presenting the two types of results together in the form of a discussion so that they can be easily compared. The presentation then becomes the means for conveying the merged findings (Creswell and Clark, 2011a: 223). In this study, I first presented the quantitative results from the interviews followed by the qualitative findings from the survey in the form of quotes in the discussion section. My comments then followed and specified how the qualitative quotes either agreed or disagreed with the quantitative results.

This study first and foremost adopted the first strategy (side-by-side comparison) to integrate the quantitative and qualitative databases and complemented the integration through the means of the second strategy, namely data transformation merged analysis. In this sort of integration, the researcher transforms one type of data into the other type so that both databases can be compared (Creswell and Clark, 2011a: 224). In my study, in some cases, I transformed the qualitative results into quantitative results which involved reducing the themes to numeric information. For example, I counted the frequencies of the comparative adjectives that were used by the teacher educators in relation to the degree of professional knowledge they needed in comparison to school teachers (See p.119).

4.9 Role of the Researcher

My study explores the roles and responsibilities as well as the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. I obtained my M.Ed from ECNU in Shanghai, and I then

worked in a secondary school in Shanghai for two years. Before starting my Ph.D. course in the UK, I completed the first year of a Ph.D. in ECNU in Shanghai. My experience of being educated at a university by preservice teacher educators as a student teacher, and of being trained as a school teacher by in-service teacher educators, has enabled me to have a greater understanding of the culture being studied (Bonner and Tolhurst, 2002), as well as of the teacher education system and teacher educators' professional lives in Shanghai. It has also given me a fuller understanding of the politics within the institutions and not only of the formal hierarchy but also how it "really works" (Unluer, 2012). My biography has inevitably helped me to understand some of the expectations of what teacher educators have to do in China, and how people may or should react to policy change. I acknowledge that this put me in the position of an insider researcher which may have influenced how I designed the survey questions in comparison to people who do not share my background or knowledge of teacher education in China.

For my qualitative research, I served as a reflexive insider. I have experienced a journey of ongoing critique and critical reflection of my own bias and assumptions, and how these have influenced all stages of the research process (Mills, 2010). This reflexive journey has supported me in bringing something from my own perspective and interpretation as a Chinese national teaching and learning in Shanghai that other researchers do not have, and thus it has helped to make a regional contribution. At the same time, this may also have resulted in some bias and created limitations of my research.

As described above, the research was carried out in Shanghai where I have experience of studying, working and living, and where I have access to a large network of people. This was essential in allowing me to determine the case study and set up the research aims and research questions. Speaking the same insider language, understanding the local values, knowledge and taboos, knowing the formal and informal power structure, as well as obtaining permission to conduct the research, to interview, and to get access to records, and documents can all facilitate the research process (Rooney, 2005; Unluer, 2012). I made good use of these advantages of being an insider during the collection and analysis of the data. Due to this insider status, I was not only able to collect a great amount of research data effectively within the three months during which I was doing my fieldwork in Shanghai, but the response rate was higher and enthusiasm for participation was greater than what an outsider might have experienced. This allowed me to collect more detailed research data. Furthermore, being an insider allowed me to easily collect data that had been

missed in the research process and get confirmation of the transcripts of the interviews from the interviewees. For example, after finishing the interviews with the teacher educators, I could easily ask them for clarification by email. This also enhanced the data collection process of the study.

On the other hand, there are disadvantages of being an insider (Paechter, 2013; Unluer, 2012), as a certain bias, caused by the researcher's personal beliefs, experiences, and values, may influence the study. This implies that there are some risks and disadvantages that the researcher should try to avoid. To manage these risks, I minimised the potential threats to validity as much as I could. Firstly, I tried to collect, analyse and interpret the data as impartially as possible. I stuck to the ethical rules and principles, performed the evaluation as accurately as possible and reported the findings honestly. Secondly, I shared my ideas with different audiences in a number of conferences during different phases of the study (Details described on p.108) and this strengthened the research findings and interpretations. Thirdly, my supervisors, who are experts in the field, reviewed and gave me very valuable suggestions for my research throughout the process of my doctoral studies. This was helpful as a counterpoint to any potential bias that may have affected my study. Fourthly, the results and interpretations of the interviews were handed over to the interviewees in order to confirm the content of what they stated during the interviews. In this way, the interpretations made by the researcher could be confirmed and validated. Finally, the collected data came from a variety of sources through a variety of techniques which enabled the findings to be considered from different perspectives and thus make them more generalisable. For example, this gave me the opportunity to consider what someone said in the individual interview compared to what someone said in the group interview.

Ethically, there was only one participant in the study who had a previous relationship with the researcher. This participant was a former classmate (one of twenty-eight) of the researcher in a postgraduate course six years previously. Creswell and Zhang (2009) suggest that power can easily be abused and participants can be coerced into a project in some situations. However, there was no intended abuse of power by the researcher in this study, because I treated all participants as equals. All participants, regardless of their previous relationship to me, were given the opportunity to decline participation in the study.

4.10 Ethical Considerations

During the progress of my research, I deliberately considered how to handle ethical issues in relation to the selection of participants for the survey and interviews, and how to conduct the interviews, store, analyse and report the data. The detailed considerations on dealing with the ethical issues appear in Sections 4.7 - 4.9.

In carrying out this research, it was necessary to develop a trusting relationship between the researcher and survey respondents, and the researcher and interview participants, in order to generate as precise and rich information as possible without having a negative effect on the participants. Firstly, the College of Social Sciences Ethics Committee at the University of Glasgow reviewed the proposal, the quantitative instrument, and all other research documentation in order to ensure that the participants' rights would not be infringed. Secondly, a Plain Language Statement (PLS) on the website of the survey was presented and read to each participant. They were each informed of the right to take or not to take the survey, and that they could withdraw from the survey at any time, without having to state a reason for withdrawal. The PLS also stated that their responses were kept anonymous and no response would be linked to any current real identity in the targeted institutions. They were also told that all the documents generated in this process that may disclose the true identity of any participant would be destroyed once the research was over.

For the qualitative research, prior to the interviews, a statement of ethical concerns was presented and read to each of the interviewees, requiring their signatures to verify their consent. The protocol of ethics assured that participation was entirely voluntary and participants' names would not be revealed to any other person except for the researcher excepting the three policymakers who were informed in advance that their names would be identified in the report of the study. Participants were also informed in advance that they could refuse to answer any question, and were free to withdraw from the interview at any time. All data collected became the property of the researcher and were concealed in a locked box belonging to the researcher. No transcripts produced would connect the participants to their real identity except the three policy informants who have provided me with their permission. Participants were also assured that they were able to preview the transcripts of their interviews for accuracy. Additionally, all the documents were destroyed upon the completion of the research.

4.11 Thesis Progression

Beginning in September 2011, I began writing Chapters 1-3 of this thesis. In December 2012, I presented a three-chapter proposal to my research panel. Based on my panel's decision to advance this study into completion, I submitted the Ethical Application to the University Ethical Committee, gained an approval of Ethics fieldwork (CSS20130268, 07/03/2013), and completed my data collection of the 15 teacher educator interviews in May 2013. Concurrent with the interview transcriptions, I began the quantitative survey analysis of the 252 teacher educator respondents. A 2011 Semester course in multivariate statistics further shaped my statistical analysis decisions. During the winter of 2013, I focused on data results and analyses of both the qualitative and quantitative mixed-research components (Chapter 4). At the beginning of 2014, I completed the presentation of findings chapters (Chapters 5–6). Lastly, I completed the interpretive summary and discussion section (Chapters 7–8) and finalised all chapter edits during the summer of 2014. At the 2014 Annual Conference of Association of Teacher Education in Europe, and the 2014 Annual Conference of European Educational Research Association, I presented key issues from my thesis and received feedback from the audiences.

4.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter presents the pragmatic research approach and the mixed-methods research design that involved both the quantitative and qualitative data which were concurrently collected and analysed. The two strands were integrated at the final data synthesis phase through two methods: side-by-side comparison in the discussion, and data transformation in the results. This study selected Shanghai as a case study. The 252 respondents were selected to participate in the online survey and three policymakers and 30 teacher educators were intentionally selected for in-depth interviews. I viewed myself as an inside reflexive researcher whose biography and knowledge of the Chinese teacher education system strengthened the data collection process of the study; however, at the same time my authorial presence has a potential bias that may have affected the study. In order to manage these risks, this chapter also presents my considerations and efforts to minimise the potential threats towards validity.

The following Chapters 5–6 will present and interpret in detail the findings of all the data from the interviews and survey.

Chapter 5 Research Findings: the Professional Characteristics of Teacher Educators in Shanghai

5.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the findings from both the quantitative and qualitative data in relation to the first research question (i.e. what are the professional identities of teacher educators in Shanghai?). This concurrent, mixed-methods study explores the perspectives of 252 teacher educators within three types of sectors. This chapter presents the following six themes related to teacher educator characteristics in Shanghai: professional roles and responsibilities; key reasons for becoming a teacher educator; career pathways; professional knowledge and competencies; professional commitments and loyalty; and professional attraction and retention.

5.2 Teacher Educators' Roles and Responsibilities

Both the online survey respondents and the interviewees were asked to identify the roles they played in their daily work. The respondents indicated that their professional roles seem diverse and unbalanced. A few of them did not recognise themselves as teacher educators.

Table 5.1 shows that teacher educators from different sectors have different views on their professional roles. In the university sector, the respondents saw themselves as teachers of education in higher education (43%), as teachers of a school subject in higher education (58%), as researchers (78%), and as teachers of didactics (18%). The results suggest that university teacher educators mainly come from the school of education, and the departments for school subjects, taking on both teaching and research. These results mean that, in the university sector, teacher educators emphasised their teaching and research roles. In particular, 78% of them emphasised research as an important part of their work.

Diversity and weight of the professional roles in different sectors

Cross tabulation*Who are you?				
	University	College	School	a*
(1) I'm a teacher of education in higher education	40 43%	40 67%	0 0%	80
(2) I'm a teacher of a school subject in higher education	53 58%	21 35%	1 1%	75
(3) I'm a teacher of didactics	17 18%	7 12%	40 40%	64
(4) I'm an educational researcher	72 78%	17 28%	65 65%	154
(5) I'm a mentor of student teachers who practises teaching in schools	1 1%	28 47%	0 0%	29
(6) I'm a mentor of serving teachers in schools or teacher training schools	0 0%	0 0%	100 100%	100
(7) I'm a teacher trainer in the private sector	0 0%	4 7%	9 9%	13
(8) I'm not actually a teacher educator	9 10%	3 5%	1 1%	13
b*	92	60	100	

a* is the number of respondents for items (1)–(8); b* is the number of respondents from each sector.

Table 5.1 Professional roles of teacher educators in different sectors

At the same time, 8 out 10 (80%) of the interviewees indicated that they had to spend a lot of time on educational research, although they all understood that teaching was also very important. For example, one of the participants from ECNU indicated that he worked both as a teacher and as a researcher like many of his colleagues:

I am a university teacher doing research and teaching. I value them both equally. So I have two roles: a university teacher and a researcher. If I had to select one role, I would say that I am a teacher in a research university. (FG01a)

The above results suggest that teacher educators in the university sector stated that the university sector placed great emphasis on research, and as a result overlooked the importance of teaching.

In the college sector, the respondents saw themselves as teachers of education in higher education (67%), as teachers of a school subject in higher education (35%), as researchers (28%), as teachers of didactics (35%), and as mentors of student teachers who practise teaching in schools (47%). Seven per cent of the respondents recognised themselves as part

time teacher trainers within the private sector. The results suggest that the teacher educators in the college sector take on multiple roles, some of which overlap with the roles of teacher educators in the university sector, but only 28% of them emphasise their roles as researchers. Unlike the roles of university teacher educators, more than 50% of the college teacher educators have the role of guiding student teachers' placements in the field. The results also indicate that very few (7%) of the teacher educators worked as part-time trainers in the private sector. These results suggest that teacher educators in the college sector are more likely to concentrate on teaching and directing student teachers than on researching. Seven out of 10 (70%) college participants indicated that acting as a counsellor was an important part of their roles. For example, they took on both teaching and counselling roles at the same time. Some of the interviewees indicated that:

We used to be counsellors and some of us still act as counsellors. [In our college,] the work of counsellors is looked at as being the same as the work of administration. The reason why we worked or are working as counsellors is that this experience is essential for promotion. (II04)

We both teach the theory of pre-school education and guide student teachers in professional practice. (FG03b)

In addition, all (100%) of the 30 interviewees indicated that all participants in the college sector felt overloaded. For example, participant II04 indicated that she taught 18 classes per week which means she spent 13.5 hours on teaching apart from the time she spent on lesson preparation, and working as a counsellor.

In the school sector, one hundred per cent of the respondents believed they were mentors of serving teachers in schools or in teacher training schools. Sixty-five per cent of the respondents also identified their roles as being researchers while 40% of them recognised their roles as teachers of didactics. The interviewees indicated that they saw a connection between the study of teaching theory and guided practice for in-service school teachers. They undertook many tasks, such as teaching observation, teaching discussions, organisation of teaching research activities and creating exam papers. All of these are closely connected with teaching practice. This situation was described by interviewee FG05b:

I am a combination of researcher and practitioner. I always feel that I have a middle role rather than purely theoretical research or practice. My role comprises both theoretical and practical elements. (FG05e)

In addition, we also have tasks that involve academic research. We need to submit current articles, the ITR [Institute of Teaching Research] of SMEC marks and publicly ranks all the articles so you can imagine how much pressure there is! (FG06a)

In addition, a number of the participants indicated that that they not only demonstrate teaching, but also take on educational research and management of teacher education. The interviewee FG06a indicated, above, that teacher educators were also under huge pressure to do research. Therefore, they in fact took on a triple role: teaching, research, and management. The results can also be seen in Table 5.2 and Figure 5.1.

Three Primary Roles of Teacher Educators in Shanghai

Work description * Institution cross tabulation				
	University	College	School	Total
Teaching	6 (6.5%)	17 (28.3%)	0 (0.0%)	23 (9.1%)
Research	2 (2.2%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (0.8%)
Teaching and research	60 (65.2%)	7 (11.7%)	6 (6.0%)	73 (29.0%)
Teaching and management	1 (1.1%)	21(35.0%)	2 (2.0%)	24 (9.5%)
Research and management	1 (1.1%)	2 (3.3%)	1 (1.0%)	4(1.6%)
Teaching, research and management	22 (23.9%)	13 (21.7%)	91 (91.0%)	126 (50%)

Table 5.2 Three primary roles of teacher educators in Shanghai

Table 5.2 shows that about 65% of the university respondents taught and researched and a further 23.9% took on management at the same time. Also, a small number of respondents either only researched or only taught (2.2%, 6.5%). In the college sector, the respondents took on a wide range of work: the proportion of respondents who worked in teaching and research; teaching only; and teaching, research and management, were 35%, 28.3 % and 21.7%, respectively. Nobody had the sole role of researcher. In the school sector, 91% of the respondents were engaged in teaching, research and management at the same time while nobody worked either only as a teacher or only as a researcher. In the population sample, 50% of respondents worked in teaching, research and management, 91% of whom came from the teacher training schools. Twenty-nine per cent were engaged in teaching

and research, and most of these came from the universities. Research and management was undertaken by 1.6% of the respondents, 75% of whom were from the universities and the colleges. The distribution of the different roles and percentages of the respondents can be seen in the Venn diagram, below (Figure 5.1).

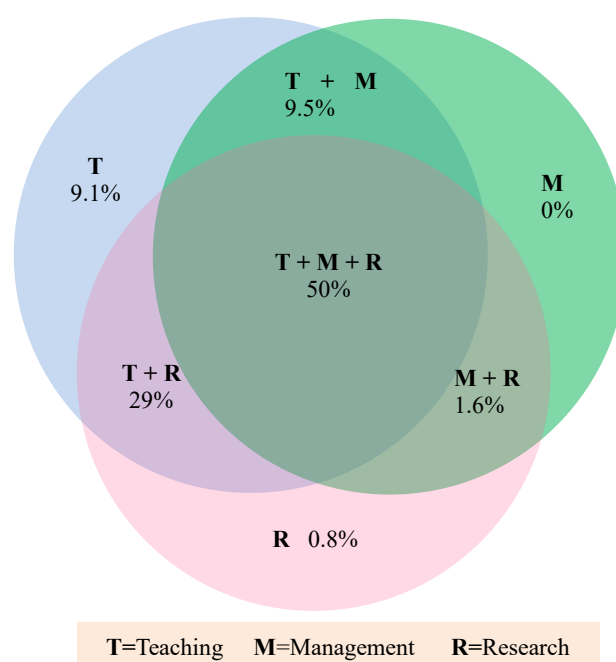


Figure 5.1 Three primary roles of teacher educators in Shanghai

Those who did not recognise themselves as teacher educators

	University	College	School	Total
I'm a teacher of education in higher education	1	1	0	2
I'm a teacher of a school subject in higher education	8	2	0	10
I'm a teacher of didactics	0	0	1	1
I'm an educational researcher	7	0	0	7
I'm a mentor of student teachers who practice teaching in schools	0	0	0	0
I'm a mentor of serving teachers in schools or teacher training schools	0	0	0	0
I'm a teacher trainer in the private sector	0	0	0	0
I'm not actually a teacher educator	9	3	1	13

Table 5.3 Teacher educators who did not recognise themselves as teacher educators in the different types of institution

Table 5.3 presents the distribution of the total 13 respondents who did not recognise themselves as teacher educators. Nine (69%) out of the 13 respondents came from the universities, 3 out of 13 (23%) were from the colleges, and only one came from a teacher

training school. In terms of their working description, 77% of them worked as teachers of a school subject in higher education (10 out of 13), and 54% as educational researchers (7 out of 13).

The results suggest that teacher educators in Shanghai play multiple roles that are subject to the sector they worked in which there are particular focuses. For example, the university-based teacher educators focused on teaching and research, the college-based teacher educators focused on teaching and practice direction for student teachers while the teacher training school-based teacher educators focused on the study of teaching and practice direction.

In summary, except for two per cent of the participants who did not recognise themselves as teacher educators, Shanghai's teacher educators have diverse roles that depend on which type of institution they work in. The professional roles of Shanghai's teacher educators are illustrated as a 'Three Primary Roles' model which consists of three categories (single, dual and triple) covering seven roles. A teacher educator performs one out of the seven roles. This study suggests that teacher educators' professional roles are subject to their work settings and their career phases, which more or less determine teacher education policy-making.

5.3 Key Reasons for Becoming a Teacher Educator

Participants were asked to rate the importance of five reasons for becoming a teacher educator. Details of mean scores and standard deviation are reported in Table 5-4, which shows that the total mean scores of the different factors were greater than the median and that social status and stable position had the two largest means at 4.12 and 4.17 respectively. The means of personal dream, and income, were 3.17 and 3.83, respectively; the smallest mean was 2.81, for unplanned factors. The results show that the teacher educators in Shanghai had specific reasons for becoming teacher educators, and that social status and stable position seem to be much more important reasons for becoming teacher educators than personal dream, income or unplanned factors.

Due to the small cell counts, the assumptions for Chi-square tests of association were not met. In order to check for differences between groups, a One-Way ANOVA was

performed on each statement. The results confirm that for social status ($F(2,249) = 6.267$, $p < 0.01$), stable position ($F(2,249) = 4.758$, $p < 0.01$), and unplanned reasons ($F(2,249) = 6.895$, $p < 0.01$), group means differed significantly. *Post hoc* tests (Tukey's HSD) on social status and on stable position confirm that those from the college sector rated these reasons significantly higher ($p < 0.01$) than those from the school sector. The results suggest that 'teacher educator' has been more significantly recognised as an occupation with high social status and stable position by teacher educators in the college sector than by those in the school sector. In relation to the importance of unplanned factors, this was significantly more important for those in the school sector than for those in both college ($p < 0.01$) and university sectors ($p < 0.01$). This means that teacher educators in the school sector had possibly not planned on becoming teaching educators when they started to work in schools.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Personal dream	University	92	3.14	1.552
	College	60	2.93	1.736
	School	100	3.33	1.525
	Total	252	3.17	1.588
Social status	University	92	4.14	.956
	College	60	4.45	.964
	School	100	3.91	.900
	Total	252	4.12	.956
Stable position	University	92	4.18	.925
	College	60	4.48	.854
	School	100	3.98	.953
	Total	252	4.17	.937
Income	University	92	3.91	1.126
	College	60	3.87	1.241
	School	100	3.72	1.026
	Total	252	3.83	1.115
Unplanned Factors	University	92	2.50	1.674
	College	60	2.47	1.722
	School	100	3.30	1.714
	Total	252	2.81	1.741

Table 5.4 Means and standard deviation of key reasons for becoming a teacher educator

5.4 Teacher Educators' Career Pathways

Participants were asked to indicate the career pathway that they had taken in becoming a teacher educator. Data on number and percentages are reported in Table 5.5.

N (%)	University	College	School
a graduate pathway	85(92.4%)	58(96.7%)	10(10%)
a school teacher pathway	7 (7.6%)	2(3.3%)	83(83%)
Other	0(0%)	0(0.0%)	7(7%)

Table 5.5 Institution and pathway cross tabulation on teacher educators' career pathways

More than 90% of respondents in the university and college sectors were employed through the first pathway, namely they became teacher educators in higher education after graduating from university. This means they took a university to university (or college) pathway without having school teaching experience. This therefore implies some potential risks for teacher education. This is in line with the qualitative results. Eighteen out of 20 (90%) interviewees who came from higher education institutions indicated that they found it hard to teach their student teachers about teaching, since they did not have school experience themselves and, hence, they had had to spend time gaining this experience. Seven point six percent and 3.3% of teacher educators in the university and the college sectors, respectively, became teacher educators through the second pathway; i.e. they worked as school teachers before they became teacher educators in higher education. The interviewees indicated that those teacher educators were likely to have come from the field of pedagogy content. More than 80% of the school respondents were employed through the second pathway. They had experience of being school teachers. As they did not have experience of training student teachers, they were likely to train in-service school teachers with their existing school experience. Another problem that was mentioned by the interviewees is that most teacher educators in the school sector did not have a higher education qualification than the school teachers; in particular, than those new school teachers who have obtained Master or higher degrees following the increasingly high selection criteria set by the educational authorities. This means that teacher educators in the school sector were challenged by the young generation of school teachers who have a higher degree with a lot of new knowledge that these teacher educators may not have. Only 7% of respondents in the school sector became teacher educators through the third pathway.

The assumptions for Chi-square tests of association have confirmed that there was a strong significant association (χ^2 169.965, $df = 2$, $p < 0.01$; Cramer's $V = .835$, $p < 0.01$) between the pathway taken to become a teacher educator and the sector of employment.¹² Those from the university and college sectors were relatively more likely to come through a graduate pathway; while those from the school sector were relatively more likely to have come through the school teacher pathway. Including gender in the analysis did not meet cell count assumptions but generally the same picture emerged as reported above.

In summary, in Shanghai, the pathways taken to become teacher educators are significantly different: on the one hand, 94% of teacher educators in initial teacher education were teachers in the schools of education and taught school subjects in higher education. They become teacher educators after graduating from higher education institutions, and did not have experience of working as school teachers. Six per cent of those working as didactics teacher educators come from schools. On the other hand, 83% of the in-service teacher educators worked as teacher educators after working in schools.

5.5 Teacher Educators' Professional Knowledge and Competencies

Participants were asked to rate the importance of the types of knowledge required by teacher educators. Table 5.6 shows that the total mean scores for every type of knowledge for teacher educators were higher than the median; the mean of practice-based research was the highest (4.27), and of educational research (3.48) the lowest. The results suggest that apart from educational research, which was less emphasised by the teacher educators in the college (2.95) and school sectors (3.16), all (other) types of knowledge were emphasised highly by the respondents in each sector.

¹² The category 'other' was omitted because there were very few responses in that category.

M (SD)	University	College	School	Total
Theory of teaching	4.04(1.089)	3.97(1.057)	3.94(1.090)	3.98(1.078)
Subject content knowledge	3.83(1.055)	4.02(0.983)	4.04(0.898)	3.96(0.979)
Knowledge of learners	3.83(1.096)	3.90(1.020)	3.90(1.010)	3.87(1.041)
Practice-based research	4.29(0.778)	4.13(0.833)	4.34(0.755)	4.27(0.784)
Educational research	4.17(0.820)	2.95(1.346)	3.16(1.369)	3.48(1.301)
General knowledge	4.09(1.013)	4.02(1.000)	3.96(0.920)	4.02(0.972)

Table 5.6 Means and standard deviation of the importance of types of knowledge required by teacher educators

In order to check for differences between groups (university, college and school), a One-Way ANOVA was performed on each statement. Only in relation to educational research were group means significantly different ($W(2,134.745) = 32.023, p < 0.01$). *Post hoc* test (Games Howell) results confirm that university mean scores were significantly higher than mean scores for both college ($p < 0.01$) and school ($p < 0.01$). The results suggest that educational research was more emphasised in the university sector than the college and the school sector.

All the interviewees indicated that teacher educators should not only have the knowledge that teachers require, but also should have their own expertise that is different from the knowledge of school teachers. Twenty-four out of 30 (80%) of them adopted comparative adjectives, describing the view that teacher educators should have broader and deeper knowledge than school teachers. The themes that the participants focused on can be divided into three categories: gaining levels of professional knowledge required by teacher educators; professional knowledge required by both school teachers and teacher educators; professional knowledge exclusively required by teacher educators.

The interviewees mentioned the basic knowledge that teacher educators needed 37 times, comparing it with teachers' knowledge. Words such as 'more' (7 mentions), 'deeper' (8 mentions), 'broader' (8 mentions) and 'higher' (5 mentions) were used to describe the greater knowledge that teacher educators require compared to that required of school teachers. The results suggest that there was a consensus among the participants that teacher educators should have greater and deeper knowledge and understanding of teacher education than school teachers, which means that teacher educators need to have all-round knowledge and competencies, and need to be well educated. For example, II02 emphasised

the importance of mastering general knowledge for teacher educators while FG01 emphasised that teacher educators should have deeper knowledge of the subject matter than school teachers.

This is a basic requirement. Apart from the knowledge that teachers should have, teacher educators also need to have general knowledge, as they should view things more broadly and stand higher [than school teachers]. (II02)

He/she [A teacher educator] needs to have a wider range of knowledge and a deeper knowledge of the subject matter [than school teachers]... (FG01c)

In terms of the overlapping aspects of knowledge that both teacher educators and school teachers should have, the interviewees indicated that both should have a sound knowledge of subject content (9 mentions) and pedagogical knowledge (9 mentions). The interviewees also believed that understanding of educational and psychological theory, knowledge of research methods and practitioner inquiries, and knowledge of teaching practice, are all very important for a school teacher and a teacher educator. For example, FG02a argued that a teacher educator should have knowledge in both textbook and practice.

I not only need to have the knowledge in textbooks, but also the knowledge that comes from the practice of teaching. (FG02a)

In addition, 8 out of the 30 (27%) participants thought that general knowledge should be seen as an essential part of the expertise of teacher educators and school teachers so that they can apply knowledge of one subject (e.g. physics, history) to inform other subjects and ultimately benefit their learners. Interviewee II05 used “comprehensive knowledge”, as she believed a teacher educator needs to have knowledge beyond his/her own subject.

[I think] the most important thing for a teacher educator is that he/she needs to have comprehensive knowledge, so he/she can connect with different subjects and will have a complete knowledge system. (II05)

The results suggest that theoretical knowledge, practical knowledge and general knowledge are essential for both teacher educators and school teachers, but again that teacher educators should master them more soundly, deeply, and widely.

Concerning the knowledge that teacher educators should have exclusively, there were 24 mentions by the participants concerning three aspects of knowledge: namely, knowledge of how to teach about teaching (7 mentions), knowledge of how to give teaching demonstrations (9 mentions), and knowledge of children and adults (8 mentions). This requires teacher educators not only to demonstrate the teaching of pupils, but also to demonstrate the teaching of adults.

Participants were asked to rate the importance of specific competences required by teacher educators. Table 5.7 shows that the total mean scores of the five teacher educator competencies listed were over 4.0, except for leadership (mean=3.82). The results suggest that apart from leadership, which was less emphasised by the teacher educators in the colleges (mean=3.07), other dimensions were emphasised highly by the respondents in each sector.

M (SD)	University	College	School	Total
Competence in teaching learners	4.11(0.895)	3.97(0.956)	4.29(0.795)	4.15(0.878)
Competence in teaching about teaching	4.26(0.797)	4.12(0.904)	4.26(0.774)	4.23 (0.813)
Competence in self-directed study	4.26(0.837)	4.07(1.056)	4.40(0.667)	4.27(0.841)
Leadership	4.05(1.042)	3.07(1.260)	4.06(1.196)	3.82(1.229)
Competence in cooperation and communicating with others	4.12(0.850)	4.05(0.964)	4.01(1.096)	4.06(0.978)

Table 5.7 Means and standard deviation of the importance of types of competencies required by teacher educators

In order to check for differences between groups (university, college and school), a One-Way ANOVA was performed on each statement. Only in relation to leadership competences did the group mean scores differ significantly ($F(2,249) = 16.718$, $p < 0.01$) with *post hoc* tests (Tukey's HSD) confirming that college mean scores were significantly lower than mean scores for both universities ($p < 0.01$) and schools ($p < 0.01$). The results suggest that leadership was more emphasised in the university and school sectors than in the college sector.

The interviewee II02 can be seen as one representative of those who indicated that the competence of organisation, the competence of self-study and the competence of management were most important for teacher educators. He explained the reasons, below:

I will firstly look at the competence of organisation. A teacher educator should be able to arrange (teaching) activities; he/she should take the lead and coordinate activities flexibly. He/she needs to balance the internal and external relationships and his physical and mental situation. Secondly, he/she should have competence in self-study...As long as teacher educators have clear beliefs and learning methods, they can improve themselves any time and in any location. Thirdly, (he needs to have) competence in management. As he/she needs to deal with problems as they arise in real life situations, he needs to be competent in management in order to solve problems flexibly and safely. (II02)

In addition, 24 of the 30 (80%) interviewees indicated that there are a wide range of competencies that teacher educators should have in order to enhance their professional power. For example, interviewees II05 and II06 both indicated that transforming knowledge into competencies is very important.

The most important thing for a teacher educator is that he/she should be competent in transforming knowledge into competencies. (II05)

A teacher educator not only needs to have knowledge and experience both theoretically and practically, but also to have experienced teaching from theory to practice, and sometimes even from practice to theory. (II06)

5.6 Teacher Educators' Professional Commitment and Loyalty

Respondents were asked to rate the amount of time in their workload spent on teacher education. Table 5.8 shows that the total percentage of time the respondents spent working on teacher education within the following levels: 76–100%, 51–75%, 25–50% and less than 25%, respectively, were: 67.9%, 15.9%, 7.9%, and 8.3%. This means 67.9% of the respondents spent more than 75% of their time on teacher education. In the university and college sectors, the respondents were relatively less likely to spend 76-100% of their time than those in the school sector. In the school sector, 91% of the respondents spent more than 75% of their time on teacher education. The results suggest that the professional commitment and loyalty of teacher educators in the school sector are higher than those of teacher educators in the university and college sectors.

N (%)	University	College	School	Total
Less than 25%	17(18.5%)	4(6.7%)	0(0%)	21(8.3%)
26–50%	18(19.6%)	2(3.3%)	0(0%)	20(7.9%)
51–75%	18(19.6%)	13(21.7%)	9(9%)	40(15.9%)
76–100%	39(42.4%)	41 (68.3%)	91(91%)	171(67.9%)

Table 5.8 Sector and professional commitment and loyalty cross tabulation

	ECNU	SHNU	XC	TC	Total
I'm a teacher of education in higher education	1	2	1	0	4
I'm a teacher of a school subject in higher education	11	4	2	1	18
I'm an educational researcher	8	5	0	0	13
I'm a mentor of student teachers who practice teaching in schools	0	1	2	0	3
I'm a teacher trainer in the private sector	0	0	1	0	1
I'm not actually a teacher educator	6	3	1	1	11

Table 5.9 Teacher educators who spent less than 25% working time on teacher education in different institutions

Table 5.9 shows that most of the 21 teacher educators who spent less than 25% of their working time on teacher education were from the university and college sectors, and were either the teachers of a school subject in higher education (86%, 18 out of 21) or an educational researcher (62%, 13 out of 21). Also, the results show that 11 out of the 13 respondents who did not recognise themselves as teacher educators came from higher education (Table 5.9 describes this in detail). The results suggest that most teacher educators who spent less than 25% of their working time on teacher education were identified as the teachers of a school subject (83%, 15 out of 18) or educational researchers (100%, 13 out of 13) in the university. This means many of the pre-service teacher educators who taught a school subject or researched had the lowest professional commitment and loyalty towards teacher education.

	University	College	School	Total
Less than 25%	9	2	0	11
26–50%	0	1	0	1
51–75%	0	0	1	1
76–100%	0	0	0	0

Table 5.10 Professional commitment and loyalty of the teacher educators who did not recognise themselves as teacher educators in the three types of institution

Table 5.10 shows the institutional distribution and the commitment distribution of the 13 respondents who did not see themselves as teacher educators. Out of those 13 respondents, 11 (85%) came from higher education, including 9 from the university sector and 2 from the college sector. All of these 11 respondents who spent less than 25% of their working time on teacher education came from initial teacher education.

The assumptions for Chi-square tests of association also confirmed that there was a significant association between sector and time spent on teacher education ($\chi^2(6) = 66.832$, $p < 0.01$) with those from the school sector relatively more likely to spend 76–100% of their time on teacher education. There was a significant association between time spent and gender ($\chi^2(6) = 66.832$, $p < 0.01$) with females relatively more likely to spend 76–100% of their time, while males were relatively more likely to spend 25–50% of their time on teacher education. The results suggest that female teacher educators are relatively more likely to spend time on teacher education than males, and teacher educators who had a school background are relatively more likely to spend their time on teacher education than the teacher educators in initial teacher education.

	Kendall's tau_b (n=252)		Spearman's rho (n=252)	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Institution B	.437**	.000	.481**	.000
Gender	.187**	.002	.197**	.002
Subject	-.206**	.000	-.228**	.000
Education	-.313**	.000	-.343**	.000
Age	.016	.776	.018	.779
Title	.043	.458	.048	.452
Serving year	.000	.994	.000	.999

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.11 Nonparametric correlations (Commitment and loyalty)

According to the Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho correlations, Table 5.11 shows that there was a significant positive correlation between the three types of teacher education

institutions and the teacher educators' professional commitment and loyalty ($r=0.437$, $p<0.001$; $r=0.481$, $p<0.001$), and between the teacher educators' gender and their professional commitment and loyalty ($r=0.187$, $p<0.001$; $r=0.197$, $p<0.001$). The results align with the Chi tests above. In addition, there was a significant negative correlation between the subjects that the teacher educators taught and their professional commitment and loyalty (the correlation coefficients and p values of both Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho, respectively, were: $r=-0.206$, $p<0.001$; $r=-0.228$, $p<0.001$). The results mean that the professional commitment and loyalty of the teacher educators who taught Chinese, Mathematics or English were higher than those who taught subjects in the humanities and social sciences (excluding Chinese and English), and the professional commitment and loyalty of the teacher educators who taught subjects in the humanities and social science (excluding Chinese and English) were higher than those who taught subjects in the natural sciences. There was also a significant negative correlation between the respondents' education and their professional commitment and loyalty (the correlation coefficients and p values of both Kendall's tau_b and Spearman's rho, respectively, were: $r=-0.313$, $p<0.001$; $r=-0.343$, $p<0.001$). The results mean that the teacher educators who had a lower degree of education had higher professional commitment and loyalty. It is worth indicating that there were no significant correlations between the respondents' age, title and serving year and their professional commitment and loyalty.

5.7 Teacher Educators' Professional Attraction and Retention

Professional attraction means the quality or features of a profession that evoke interest, liking, or desire. Professional retention means that the members of the profession continue to stay in the profession. Therefore teacher educators' professional attraction and retention can be defined as the quality or features of the teacher educator occupation that result in teacher educators continuing to stay. The extent of teacher educators' professional attraction and retention has been delimited. In the online survey, I set 1–100 points (low to high) for teacher educators' rating. 1–50 points means that teacher education is less attractive and they want to leave; 51–75 points mean that teacher education is neutral, and they do not have preference to leave or stay; 76–100 points mean teacher education is more attractive, they want to stay.

Respondents were asked to rate the attractiveness of teacher education as a profession on a scale of 1–100. Table 5.12 shows that the total mean score was 87.31 and the means of professional attraction and retention in each institution were all over 76, which means that the respondents were strongly willing to stay in teacher education and this occupation had relatively high attraction. The highest mean was 90.91 from the university sector, the mean of the school sector was 86.62, and the mean of the college sector at 82.95 was the lowest. The standard deviations that are shown in Table 5.12, respectively, were: 4.978, 7.434, and 9.174, which means the data from the university sector was more concentrated than that from either the college sector or the school sector.

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
University	90.91	4.978	92
College	82.95	7.434	60
School	86.62	9.174	100
Total	87.31	8.041	252

Table 5.12 Means and Standard Deviation of professional attraction and retention in each sector

In order to check for differences between groups (university, college and school), a One-Way ANOVA was performed on each statement. Males ($89.614, \pm 5.24$) rated the profession significantly higher than females ($86.079, \pm 8.97$) $t(248.201) = 3.944, p < 0.01$. Group mean rating scores also differed significantly by sector ($W(2,137.221) = 29.443, p < 0.01$). *Post hoc* pairwise comparisons (Games Howell) confirmed that group means for universities were significantly higher than the group means for both colleges ($p < 0.01$) and schools ($p < 0.01$); in addition, group means for schools were significantly higher than those for colleges ($p < 0.05$).

In order to check for correlations between professional attraction and retention and gender, sector, subject, education, age, title and serving year, Pearson correlations were performed on each statement.

	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Institution	-.227**	.000
Gender	-.210**	.001
Subject	-.174**	.005
Education	.221**	.000
Age	.132*	.036
Title	.156**	.013
Years of service	.131*	.037

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.13 Pearson correlations (Professional attraction and retention)

Table 5.13 shows that there was a significant negative correlation between the teacher educators' institutions and their professional attraction and retention ($r = -.227$, $p = 0.000$). The results mean the professional attraction and retention of the university-based teacher educators was higher than that of the college-based and school-based teacher educators. There was a significant negative correlation between the teacher educators' gender and their professional attraction and retention (the correlation coefficients and p values was $r = -.210$, $p = 0.001$). The results mean the professional attraction and retention of the female teacher educators was lower than that of the male teacher educators. There was a significant negative correlation between the subjects that the teacher educators taught and their professional attraction and retention (the correlation coefficients and p values were: $r = -.174$, $p = 0.005$). The results mean that the professional attraction and retention of the teacher educators who taught Chinese, Mathematics or English were higher than those of the teacher educators who taught subjects in the humanities and social sciences (excluding Chinese and English), and the professional attraction and retention of the teacher educators who taught subjects in the humanities and social sciences (excluding Chinese and English) were higher than those of the teacher educators who taught subjects in the natural sciences. There was a significant positive correlation between the respondents' education and their professional attraction and retention ($r = .221$, $p = 0.000$). The results mean that the teacher educators who had a higher degree of education had higher professional attraction and retention. There was a significant positive correlation between the respondents' age and their professional attraction and retention ($r = .132$, $p = 0.036$). The results mean that the teacher educators who were older had a higher professional attraction and retention. There was a significant positive correlation between the respondents' titles and their professional attraction and retention ($r = .156$, $p = 0.013$). The results mean that the teacher educators who had higher titles had higher professional attraction and retention. There was a significant positive correlation between the respondents' years of service and their professional

attraction and retention ($r=.131$, $p=0.037$). The results mean that the teacher educators who had completed more years of service had higher professional attraction and retention.

5.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter presents both quantitative and qualitative data in relation to the first research question: ‘what are the professional identities of teacher educators in Shanghai?’. All findings are reported through viewing the perceptions of the teacher educators who work in the university-based, college-based and school-based institutions. The results suggest that the professional roles of Shanghai’s teacher educators are diverse, but can be divided into three primary roles (teaching, research and management) that, alone and in combination, create seven separate roles in total. Each teacher educator has one of these seven roles, which are relatively stable, but can be flexible depending on the particular contexts. The results also suggest that the stability of the teacher educator occupation and the level of its social status can be seen as two primary reasons that attract teacher educators. Teacher educators are involved in teacher education either through a graduate route or a teaching route. They tend to emphasise practice-based professional development, most of them have high professional commitment and loyalty, and the desire to stay in teacher education. However, the results also suggest there are a lot of subtle differences between different sectors which are subject to their particular contexts.

The results show clearly that the teacher educators’ responses placed more emphasis on roles and responsibilities, rather than identity. The next chapter will present the findings on the current situation in relation to the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai.

Chapter 6 Research Findings: the Professional Development of Teacher Educators in Shanghai

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings in relation to the second research question (i.e. what are the opportunities and challenges for the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai?). Four dimensions regarding the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai are discussed sequentially: purposes of professional development; professional development needs; approaches to professional development; and support for professional development. The results concerning the quality and impact of professional development and the significance of the differences between different types of institutions will be focused in this chapter.

6.2 Purposes of Professional Development

Respondents were asked to comment upon the extent to which various factors motivated their participation in professional development activities. Table 6.1 shows that the total mean scores of the four purposes listed for why teacher educators participated in professional development were: 4.71, 4.53, 3.76 and 4.56.

	University	College	School	Total	Test statistic
	<i>Mean (Std. Dev.)</i>				
To solve issues within practice	4.57 (0.580)	4.78 (0.415)	4.79 (0.478)	4.71 (0.514)	$W(2,155.306) = 4.975, p<0.01$
To broaden horizons and improve experience	4.34 (0.700)	4.63 (0.520)	4.64 (0.578)	4.53 (0.627)	$W(2,154.044) = 6.201, p<0.01$
To strengthen professional status within academia	4.11 (0.955)	3.22 (1.236)	3.77 (1.136)	3.76 (1.146)	$W(2,142.309) = 11.390, p<0.01$
To meet external standards and requests	4.41 (0.939)	4.80 (0.403)	4.56 (0.686)	4.56 (0.752)	$W(2,163.317) = 7.806, p<0.01$

Table 6.1 Means, standard deviation and One-Way ANOVA of purposes of professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai

All the mean scores were over the median, the highest mean was ‘to solve the issues within practice’ (4.71), and the lowest mean was ‘to strengthen professional status within academia’ (3.76). The results suggest that teacher educators in Shanghai had a strong desire to participate in professional development activities, with the most dominant purpose being to solve practical issues.

In order to investigate group (university, college and school) differences, a One-Way ANOVA was performed. Group means differed significantly for each of the four statements, as reported above in Table 6.1.

Firstly, regarding the *post hoc* pairwise comparisons (Games Howell) for solving issues and for broadening horizons, university mean scores were significantly lower than both college ($p<0.05$) and school ($p<0.05$) mean scores. The results suggest that teacher educators in colleges and teacher training schools were relatively more likely to care about solving the issues that they met in practice, and broadening their horizons in order to enhance their professional expertise, than teacher educators in universities. This implies that teacher educators in colleges and teacher training schools had a stronger desire to participate in practice-oriented professional development activities than those in universities. These results show up teacher educators’ internal motivations, as they were driven to participate in professional development activities.

Secondly, for professional status, college mean scores were significantly lower than both university ($p<0.05$) and school ($p<0.05$) mean scores. The results suggest that university and school-based teacher educators were relatively more likely to pursue professional status than teacher educators in colleges. This is in line with the qualitative findings displayed below that the teacher educators in the universities and teacher training schools have huge pressure to produce publications, because academic productiveness may determine their professional status. This denotes that the university-based teacher educators and the school-based teacher educators placed more emphasis on the professional development activities that helped to raise their professional status than those who worked in the colleges.

Thirdly, for external standards, college mean scores were significantly higher than both university ($p<0.05$) and school ($p<0.05$) mean scores. The results suggest that college teacher educators were relatively more likely to desire to meet external standards (e.g.

promotion, tenure, and appraisal) than the university-based and school-based teacher educators.

The qualitative results are in line with the survey results in relation to teaching practice. Twenty-two out of the 30 (73%) interviewees indicated that they attended professional development activities with aims of solving practical issues they met in training teachers and enhancing training quality. This was particularly repeated by the participants from the college and school sector. As the interviewee II04 said,

I need to focus on the interaction, discussion, and communication between my students and me in order to ensure effective, high-quality teaching, achieve the aims of the teaching, and demonstrate good teaching practice. (II04)

The qualitative data have confirmed the survey findings that the university teacher educators emphasised improving research skills and productiveness to lift their professional status more, despite knowing that advanced professional development significantly benefits teaching quality. The participant FG02a believed that different types of teachers have different emphases. In his university, teacher educators needed to spend more time on research. His colleague FG02d believed research was the most important thing.

Different types of teachers have different emphases, such as research-oriented teachers, teaching-oriented teachers and teaching research-oriented teachers and so on. Generally, research-oriented teachers and teaching research-oriented teachers need to spend more time on research. (FG02a)

I have not stopped my scientific research, even though I have so many classes. I often prepare lessons at home and at nights. (FG02b)

The college-based participants had different views on the choice of undertaking research. In their institutions, research was not their compulsory job, as FG03e indicated:

Some teachers who have interests and who are keen to do research projects may be involved in them. It totally depends on the teachers as they can make their own choices according to their subjects and interests. (FG03e)

The interview findings indicate that 15 out of the 30 (50%) interviewees considered their participation in professional development to be realistic. The participants thought that they were motivated by seeking promotion, gaining the capacities and skills for making money, and improving their quality of life. Here is an example in which interviewee FG02c described his thoughts:

I can't give up any activities in [educational] research, teaching and teaching research, because I wish to [make more money to] have a high quality of family life. (FG02c)

The two strands of data illustrate why teacher educators in Shanghai are willing to participate in professional development activities. The population mean suggests that the whole teacher educator group in Shanghai had strong motivations to participate in professional development activities, and at the same time, teacher educators in different institutions may have different purposes. The university-based participants emphasised academic research more than the college-based and school-based participants whilst teacher educators in the latter two sectors emphasised practically-oriented activities more than university teacher educators. The integrated results show that these different purposes of professional development of the teacher educators may lead to different emphases on teacher education. The university-based teacher educators were more 'academic' and the college-based and the school-based teacher educators were more 'practical'. For example, the university-based teacher educators may have positive impact on their own professional development through research and may have an impact on their student teachers because they were able to offer more access to research methods and publications, such as training of research methods, and sharing experience in research. The school-based teacher educators may give more opportunities to their school trainees in relation to solutions for teaching and classroom practice.

6.3 Professional Development Needs

Teacher educators in Shanghai had their own expectations of professional development. The professional development needs of Shanghai's teacher educators were investigated by the Teacher Educator Survey. Simultaneously, Shanghai's teacher educators were

interviewed on the same questions. The findings from the perspectives of the teacher educators on their professional development needs are displayed below.

M (SD)	University	College	School	Total
	<i>Mean (Standard Deviation)</i>			
Build better academic platform	4.55(0.600)	4.08(0.591)	4.04(0.567)	4.24(0.630)
Increase professional development opportunities	4.62(0.626)	4.78(0.454)	4.71(0.518)	4.69(0.548)
Provision of abundant funds	4.03(0.762)	4.28(0.524)	4.15(0.672)	4.14(0.680)
Make incentive policies	4.26(0.693)	4.32(0.596)	4.39(0.751)	4.33(0.695)
Provision of professional leadership	4.55(0.652)	4.70(0.462)	4.64(0.595)	4.62(0.589)
Build professional development communities	4.65(0.619)	4.68(0.537)	4.64(0.659)	4.65(0.615)

Table 6.2 Means, standard deviation of the professional development needs of teacher educators in Shanghai

Table 6.2 shows the mean scores of the six different teacher educators' professional development needs in Shanghai. All the displayed means are over 4.0. This denotes that the participants in Shanghai had strong professional development needs for each item listed above, with the most dominant need being to increase professional development opportunities.

In order to investigate group (university, college and school) differences, a One-Way ANOVA was performed. In respect to the *post hoc* pairwise comparisons (LSD), only for the factor 'build better academic platform' were university mean scores significantly higher than the mean scores from the colleges ($p < 0.05$) and schools ($p < 0.05$). The results show that for the factor 'build better academic platform', university teacher educators had stronger needs than those in the college and school sectors. This is also linked to the findings above that the university teacher educators had strong desires to improve their research skills and productiveness (See Section 6.2).

The interviewees described their desire to be supported by their institutions, colleagues and national policies as well as regional policies. The professional development needs that the participants put forward are shown above and include two aspects of needs: 'addition' and 'subtraction'. The qualitative results suggest that the participants of this study hoped that some things would increase whereas others would decrease. The interview findings

confirm the survey results that there is a need for an increase in supportive climate and opportunities as well as time and funding for the professional development of teacher educators. At the same time, workload, unnecessary meetings, and management business were expected to be reduced. However, these needs manifest themselves differently in different institutions. These differences include three dominant dimensions, namely: time, funding and supportive organisational cultures.

Time

Twenty-one out of the 30 (70%) interviewees thought they did not have enough time to engage in professional development activities. This situation was especially shown in colleges and schools. Nineteen out of the above 21 (90%) interviewees came from the college and school based institutions. FG04d was a college teacher educator who complained that she had felt exhausted since she began working in the college. Her colleague FG04a hoped the institution could reduce her workload because she was attending her part time Ph.D. studies. All the interviewees in the college sector felt that it was impossible for them to have time to participate in professional development activities.

I taught 17 classes (45 minutes per class) per week in the last term, and 18 classes this term. So you can imagine, the overall amount of lesson preparation is very large. In addition, I act as a counsellor and supervise 10 students. All of this is not what I imagined being a university teacher to be like. (FG04d)

I hope the department can decrease my workload when I study for my [part time] Ph.D. courses. (FG04a)

In the light of the time constraints, teachers cannot take too much time [for professional development activities]. (FG03e)

The school-based teacher educators faced a similar situation. The samples from the school participants indicated that time issue affected their professional learning. They worked on working days, but sometimes they had to spend their night time finishing the tasks that should be done in day time.

Actually, time is the most needed. If you gave me much more time, I could do it better. (II06)

We have a heavy workload, so most research studies have to be done at home, usually in the evenings. (FG05b)

We do a lot of work on working days, so we have very little time to think about our professional development. Sometimes my studies are based on work demands. ...So if I have something that needs to be done, I have to work into the night. (FG05a)

Another factor that is more likely to consume the participants' time is there are too many management, business and unnecessary meetings. These things, as the participant FG02c described, may cause a lot of problems. The most direct effect of this, for the teacher educators, was that their time for PD was reduced.

Some trivial things occupy my time and energy. (FG01b)

Actually, we are now often controlled by external factors [such as, meetings, management business]. (FG02a)

I know that some of our colleagues often feel anxious when so many things are piling up. Each of us hopes that we can have good personal development, but actually we come across so many problems. (FG02c)

The results suggest that the participants in this study, regardless of which institution they worked in, have faced the common issue – time. However, the reasons caused in different institutions are different. For the university-based teacher educators, some of them undertook administrative roles and had to deal with many academic things, which is the main factor that may cut their time for PD. For the college-based and school-based teacher educators, they had undertaken an overload of both teaching and administrative tasks. These results denote that time issue is detrimental to the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai and this may have influence on teacher education. On the one hand, the primary concern for teacher educators was that they did not have sufficient time for PD, in other words, they had no opportunity for reflecting on their teaching and practice, and for enhancing their knowledge and experience to meet the changing needs of their student teachers and in-service trainees. On the other hand, the participants in this

study complained they were overloaded which results in a lot of physical and mental pressures to teacher educators, and this thus had negative influence on teacher education quality.

Funding

Both qualitative and quantitative results suggest that the participants needed more funding for their PD. Firstly, although the quantitative results show that the university participants rated this item in the survey the highest, this result of itself does not necessarily mean that the university teacher educators were in fact supported insufficiently. As one of the respondents, FG02, described:

The university provides abundant funding for this. (FG02a)

Secondly, financial support in the college and school sectors is more likely to be insufficient. FG05e and FG06a, both from the school sector, said that they received no money for attending professional development activities while the college respondent FG04a indicated that she received no financial support from the college for her formal study.

Most of the institutions do not have extra funding for such an activity...so it actually means nothing. (FG05e)

For example, we need funding for organising activities...so sometimes we are very embarrassed and it is very hard to organise an activity. (FG06a)

I am doing a Ph.D. in SHNU, but as yet the college has not provided me with proper wages and a suitable workload. Even though the college encourages us teachers to update our degrees, they still do not want to pay our tuition fees. (FG04a)

The results suggest that teacher educators in different institutions may be funded at different levels. The university-based teacher educators are funded while the college-based and school-based teacher educators seem not to have sufficient financial support. This may lead to both positive and negative impacts on teacher education. On the one hand,

sufficient financial support may create more opportunities, for example, many university-based teacher educators have opportunities for academic exchange abroad. This may have a positive impact on the professional learning outcomes of the teacher educators, because they had more access to knowledge of other ways of doing things and different perspectives on teacher education. On the other hand, less financial support may lead to fewer opportunities for the professional development of teacher educators. For example, as the college-based and school-based teacher educators have no sufficient financial support, it is difficult to attend PD activities, such as formal studies, academic exchanges. This may result in difficulties to meet their professional learning needs and this may have negative impact on both teacher educators and teacher trainees.

Supportive organisational cultures

Both the qualitative and quantitative results show that there are a number of differences between teacher educators in different institutions in relation to their professional development needs. The data suggests that the four dimensions of needs that the participants were concerned with the most were: professional development opportunities, research platform, professional leadership and peer collaboration.

Professional development opportunities

Both of the qualitative and quantitative results show that teacher educators indicated they needed more professional development opportunities, regardless of what type of institutions they worked in. In contrast to the quantitative results, the qualitative results have the advantage as they are able to show that the needs manifested themselves differently depending on the institutional type. The following quotes from the different types of institutions show that university based teacher educators were more likely to have a higher research platform whilst college and school based teacher educators were more likely to have multiple opportunities, such as off-job training and learning overseas etc.

I hope I could have the opportunity to conduct national level [educational] research projects. (FG01a)

I hope that I can be supported by a good professional team. (FG01e)

If possible, the best [opportunity] would be off-job training. (FG03e)

I hope I can engage in a higher platform for professional learning, especially in an opportunity for learning overseas. (FG04b)

I hope we can have more opportunities for training. It would be great if we could be trained off the job. (FG06a)

Research platform

The word ‘research’ was mentioned 221 times in the qualitative comments, in which 172 out of the 221 mentions (78%) were by the university based teacher educators. Meanwhile, the word ‘platform’ was mentioned 12 times, in which 9 mentions were by the university teacher educators. This appears to show that university teacher educators are more concerned with research than college and school based teacher educators. The qualitative data which were transformed from the themes to numeric information confirm the survey results that the university respondents were more likely to have a higher research platform than those in college and those who were school-based.

The university has a project on leading by professionals which means that university teachers’ professional development is led by experts. For example, an academic can be invited to lead a project or a team and construct a platform for the professional development of those teachers who have the same research interests. (FG02a)

I hope I can engage in a more advanced platform for professional learning, especially in an opportunity for academic exchange overseas. (II01)

The survey results display lower means for the college and school based teacher educators than the university teacher educators on the dimension of research, and the qualitative data do not show that college and school teacher educators have more concern with research. The results confirm that research is centred in the role of the university-based teacher educators. Thus, the impact of research was more likely to be emphasised by the university-based teacher educators than the student teachers and school teachers.

Professional leadership

The quantitative data shows that college and school based teacher educators needed more professional leadership for their professional development. The qualitative results are in line with the quantitative results. The college and school based teacher educators expected that they could be supported by the experts, either through formal studies being supervised, or through project work under the supervision of the 'role models'. One of the respondents, FG03b, felt expert's guidance was more helpful for her professional learning.

In fact, another means of achieving professional development is learning from experts...If we have guidance from experts, we will improve rapidly. (FG03b)

The results indicate that professional leadership was strongly needed by the college-based and school-based teacher educators. This means expert human resources were viewed as important to the PD of the college-based and school-based teacher educators.

Peer collaboration

The qualitative results show the differences in peer collaboration of teacher educators in Shanghai between the different sectors. The university based teacher educators seemed to have difficulties in working closely together. As FG01a mentioned, they seemed 'unable to overcome' these difficulties which appeared to be serious. FG02 indicated that he rarely communicated with his colleagues. This, as his colleague, FG02b, argued, was probably due to different 'working styles'.

My colleagues pay attention to different areas, so there are many insurmountable difficulties, including the lack of strong team support and attention to major issues etc., which the university seems unable to overcome. (FG01a)

There are very few discussions among colleagues. I think discussion is up to each individual, because if you have similar interests and habits of teaching or research, or even of personal matters, you will communicate more often. (FG02c)

It will be very hard to have a talk with those who teach in the university but work at home. (FG02b)

The results suggest that there was little peer conversation and collaboration between the university-based teacher educators. Therefore, it was difficult for them to share knowledge and experience, which may impact negatively on negative for the construction of a positive organisational culture and the development of strong commitment to teacher education.

At the same time, the qualitative results show that peer collaboration in college and school based sectors seemed to be closer. They interacted normally through peer meetings, teaching observation, and teaching issues discussion etc.

We also have some small-scale meetings with colleagues in the same subjects. (FG03b)

[My] colleagues [who observed the teaching] often give me very helpful comments and advice which refreshed and enlightened me. (II04)

We think particularly about the specific and universal issues that teachers generally encounter, discuss these with colleagues and then find out how to solve them. (FG05c)

Both databases provide findings in relation to the professional needs of teacher educators in Shanghai. The quantitative results show more detailed differences in these professional development needs between the sectors. The findings indicate two key messages. The first is that the university teacher educators were more likely to have a higher research platform and have limited closer collaborative relationships between colleagues. This may result in difficulties in sharing knowledge and experience, and be detrimental to the construction of a positive organisational culture and a strong commitment to teacher education. The second is that the college and school based teacher educators were more likely to expect more time, funding and expert resources for their professional development. These factors seem important to the PD of the college and school based teacher educators.

6.4 Approaches to Professional Development

The nine dimensions identified in Table 6.3 refer to the response percentages of the frequency of teacher educator's approaches towards professional development in Shanghai (the left part) and the participants' perceptions of the usefulness of the approaches towards professional development (the right part). The data was collected from 252 teacher educators in the three different types of institutions in Shanghai during the academic semester (9/2012–2/2013).

Table 6.4 shows that, according to the frequency of the professional development activities that the participants selected at least 5 times, the most selected activities by sector are: self-study, teaching reflection and research; and that the least selected activities by sector are: formal studies for advanced academic degrees, domestic and international exchange and visits and mentoring. Including the usefulness rate (See Table 6.4), the results show that the three most and the three least selected activities by sector were also rated highly on usefulness. More than 98% of the respondents who participated in self-study, teaching reflection and research more than 5 times during the academic semester (9/2012–2/2013) indicated that these three professional activities were useful. This means self-study, teaching reflection and research were the most participated in professional development activities, as well as the most useful professional development activities as rated by the participants. Although many respondents had never participated in the three least selected activities during the academic semester (9/2012–2/2013), more than 98% of the respondents still believed formal studies, domestic and international exchange and visits, and mentoring to be useful. The results suggest that the professional development activities that they engaged in were not necessarily the activities that they preferred. This implies that the teacher educators were open to a range of different approaches to PD and there was no one clear option being selected as the most useful approach.

	(%)	Never	1–2 times	3–5 times	5+ times	Less useful	Useful	More useful
Formal studies for advanced academic degrees	U	93.5	6.5	0	0	0	31.5	68.5
	C	90.0	10.0	0	0	0	18.3	81.7
	S	86.0	14.0	0	0	0	11	89
	Total	89.7	10.3	0	0	0	20.2	79.8
Training courses by different institutions	U	73.9	26.1	0	0	23.9	50	26.1
	C	45	40.0	15.0	0	13.3	0	46.7
	S	68.0	32.0	0	0	11	37	52
	Total	64.7	31.7	3.6	0	16.3	42.5	41.3
Domestic and international exchange and visits	U	76.1	23.9	0	0	14.1	52.2	33.7
	C	95.0	3.3	1.7	0	0	40	60
	S	90.0	9.0	1.0	0	4	26	62
	Total	86.1	13.1	0.8	0	6.7	38.9	54.4
Academic conferences or periodic seminars and lectures	U	1.1	7.6	53.3	38.0	1.1	30.4	68.4
	C	11.7	43.3	38.3	6.7	0	40	60
	S	4.0	24.0	47.0	25.0	2	37	60
	Total	4.8	22.6	47.2	25.4	1.6	35.3	63.1
Peer studies	U	7.6	72.8	14.1	5.4	0	9.8	90.3
	C	1.7	20.0	63.3	15.0	0	13.3	86.7
	S	2.0	27.0	46.0	25.0	4	20	76
	Total	4.0	42.1	38.5	15.5	1.6	14.7	85.7
Mentoring	U	44.6	34.8	10.9	9.8	0	0	100
	C	98.3	11.7	0	0	0	6.7	93.3
	S	66.0	23.0	10.0	1.0	0	8	92
	Total	65.9	22.2	7.9	4.0	0	4.8	95.2
Research	U	0	2.2	3.3	94.6	0	0	100
	C	68.3	10.0	13.3	8.3	3.3	15	81.6
	S	2.0	14.0	24.0	60.0	0	5	95
	Total	17.1	8.7	13.9	60.3	0.8	5.6	93.6
Self-study	U	0	0	1.1	98.9	0	0	100
	C	0	0	6.7	93.3	3.3	5	91.6
	S	0	1.0	2.0	97.0	1	4	95
	Total	0	0.4	2.8	96.8	1.2	2.8	96
Teaching reflection	U	0	0	2.2	97.8	0	1.1	98.9
	C	6.7	15.0	28.3	50.0	5	8.3	86.7
	S	0	0	9.0	91.0	1	7	92
	Total	1.6	3.6	11.1	83.7	1.5	5.2	93.3

Table 6.3 Response percentages of frequency, and the participants' perceptions of usefulness, of the approaches towards the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai.

<i>Top 3 most selected activities by sector with usefulness rating</i>					
	%	5+ times	Less useful	Useful	More useful
Self-study		96.8	1.2	2.8	96
Teaching reflection		83.7	1.5	5.2	93.3
Research		60.3	0.8	5.6	93.6
<i>Top 3 least selected activities by sector with usefulness rating</i>					
	%	Never	Less useful	Useful	More useful
Formal studies		89.7	0	20.2	79.8
Domestic and international exchange and visits		86.1	6.7	38.9	54.4
Mentoring		65.9	0	4.8	95.2

Table 6.4 Top 3 most and least selected activities with usefulness rating by sector

As the percentage of cells is more than 20% with expected count less than 5, the Chi-square is not valid. There was only a significant difference on the research that the respondents undertook between the sectors (χ^2 188.876 df=6, $p<0.01$). In terms of the respondents' views on usefulness of the professional activities, except for formal studies (χ^2 18.700 df=4, $p=0.01$) and training courses (χ^2 20.547 df=8, $p<0.01$), there were no significant differences on the other eight dimensions of approaches to the professional development of teacher educators between the sectors. The results suggest that university teacher educators were relatively more likely to participate in research than the college-based and school-based teacher educators.

The following sections present the findings in relation to the professional development activities within the university sector, the college sector and the school sector, respectively.

Professional Development Activities in the University Sector

Table 6.5 shows that the most selected professional development activities, in which the teacher educators in the university sector participated in more than 5 times during the academic semester (9/2012–2/2013), are: self-study (98.9%), teaching reflection (97.8%), and research (94.6%), and that the least selected professional development activities are: formal studies for advanced academic degrees (93.5%), domestic and international exchange and visiting (76.1%) and training courses (73.9%). Including the usefulness rating (See Table 6.5), the results show that 100% of the university respondents believed

that all the top 3 most selected activities were useful, whilst more than 75% of the respondents believed that the least selected activities are also useful.

<i>Top 3 most selected activities with usefulness rated by the university teacher educators</i>					
	%	5+ times	Less useful	Useful	More useful
Self-study		98.9	0.0	0.0	100
Teaching reflection		97.8	0.0	1.1	98.9
Research		94.6	0.0	0.0	100
<i>Top 3 least selected activities with usefulness rated by the university teacher educators</i>					
	%	Never	Less useful	Useful	More useful
Formal studies		93.5	0.0	31.5	68.5
Domestic and international exchange and visits		76.1	14.1	52.2	33.7
Training courses		73.9	23.9	50	26.1

Table 6.5 Top 3 most and least selected activities with usefulness rated by the university teacher educators

In addition to those three most selected approaches that the university-based respondents mentioned, which are displayed in Table 6.3, the university-based interviewees also highlighted mentorships, communication with experts and peers, and participation in a research project.

Eight out of the 10 (80%) interviewees stressed that self-study played an important role in their professional development. Self-study mainly refers to the participants who went about self-directed activities, such as reading, writing, thinking, reflection. For example, FG02b indicated that he went about self-study by reading and inquiring into research. This is in line with the quantitative results.

I adopt self-study, I read books and inquire into research projects for as long as I want to, and I keep reading cutting edge knowledge as long as there is time. (FG02b)

The above findings show that one-direction professional learning seems one main approach towards the PD of the university-based teacher educators. Another approach that 9 out of 10 (90%) university participants emphasised is mentoring. Mentoring refers to the relationships between the participants and their mentors and supervisors who guide them professionally. This point did not emerge as a dominant approach in the quantitative data.

However, in the qualitative data the participants repeatedly highlighted the significance of this approach towards the professional development of teacher educators. For example, FG01a indicated that mentoring is the ‘most effective’ way for teacher educators’ professional growth whilst F01d believed that mentoring is important for teacher educators’ professional development according to his successful experience of mentoring new teacher educators.

If there was a mentor system and a platform of research, that would be the most effective. In fact, we need mentors who genuinely know how to direct us. (FG01a)

I guide many novice teacher educators who are developing quickly, so the mentor system is very important. (FG01d)

Although the mentoring system stated above did not appear in the top 3 approaches to professional development of teacher educators in the quantitative data, it still signals that the participants in the university sector had opportunities to be supported by mentors and they experienced the effects of this system. Another similar point that was missed in the quantitative data is communication with experts and peers, which refers to teacher educators communicating and interacting with experts in the relevant fields and school teachers, such as teaching observation and discussion in schools, training school teachers and school leaders. Eight out ten (80%) participants believed that this type of interaction benefited their professional growth. The participants indicated that they had more opportunities to interact with their peers or experts in teacher education domestically and internationally than those in the college-based or school-based institutions, but interacted with their colleagues less. This is in line with the results in Table 6.3, which show that 91% of the university-based participants had participated in educational conferences and seminars more than three times and 23% of them had at least one opportunity to go on a domestic or international exchange or visit in the academic year (9/2012–2/2013). However, the results show that, in the same period, the college-based and the school-based participants did not have such opportunities. Five out of ten the interviewees (50%) noted that they often communicated with experts in the field of teacher education, which strongly supported them in widening their horizons. For example, II02 indicated that he learned from experts, school teachers and head teachers while FG02 adopted both self-study and working with experts.

Sometimes, I communicate with the experts and school teachers, especially the experienced head teachers and school teachers. I have discussed with so many experts who come from different areas, and different institutions, which was very enlightening. (H02)

I read books, gather data, write up articles, and work on research projects by myself. Sometimes I work on some projects with the senior professors, which really benefits me a lot. (FG02b)

The findings regarding the interaction between the mentors, experts and the university teacher educators show that this two-way interaction is helpful for the PD needs of the university teacher educators identified by the participants. This may have a positive impact on teacher education in relation to the construction of a positive relationship between university teacher educators and their students. As well as this, more tacit knowledge may be conveyed by the university teacher educators to student teachers.

In addition to the above points, the results also suggest some features in relation to approaches to the professional development of the university-based teacher educators in Shanghai. Seven out of the 10 (70%) university interviewees indicated that they were in charge of training both pre-service student teachers, and in-service school teachers. Typically, the participant FG02a indicated that he went to a number of schools because the head teachers invited him and not because he was prompted by the university to go there. FG01d indicated interaction with school teachers was the most important part of professional life. This signals a good trend that university teacher educators get involved in in-service teacher training, which has significant impact on the Chinese teacher education system, especially for the integration of pre-service and in-service teacher education.

I go to the secondary schools, primary schools and teacher training schools quite often. I often co-operate with them on research projects, and I often observe teaching and discuss teaching with the school teachers. Sometimes, the head teachers and teacher training schools invite me to participate in their activities. (FG02a)

In my view, the interaction with school teachers is the most important thing, because I can understand how teachers teach and how they impart knowledge to their students. (FG01d)

Unlike the college-based and school-based teacher educators, 4 out of the 10 (40%) university-based interviewees indicated that they often got involved in policymaking and policy consultations. This can also be seen as a good starting point for Chinese teacher education, as some teacher educators have recognised themselves as a part of teacher education decision making, rather than simply decision implementation.

I participate in governmental policy-making, which relates to the development of plans for teacher education. (I feel this is) wonderful for my professional development. (II02)

I have engaged in some administrative work, and participated in the formulation of government policy processes, therefore I understand the importance of administrative management. (FG01a)

Professional Development Activities in the College Sector

Table 6.6 shows that the most selected professional development activities, in which the teacher educators within the college sector participated more than 5 times during the academic semester (9/2012–2/2013), are: self-study (93.3%), teaching reflection (50%), and peer studies (15%), and that the least selected professional development activities by those teacher educators are: mentoring (98.3%), domestic and international exchange and visiting (95%) and formal studies for advanced academic degrees (90%). Including the usefulness rating (See Table 6.6), the results show that 95% of the college respondents believed all these top 3 most selected activities were useful, whilst 100% of the respondents believed the least selected activities were also useful.

The college-based interviewees gave answers that mostly matched the survey results. For example, they emphasised teaching reflection (85% recognised) and peer discussion (83% recognised). Even though the survey data shows that the respondents selected domestic and international academic exchange as a preferred approach to go about their professional development, 8 out of the 10 (80%) interviewees complained that they actually did not have many opportunities for such activities. The data regarding participation in activities for professional development in the colleges showed that the participants were involved in diverse professional activities, such as self-study, formal studies and secondment in

nurseries. The interview results complemented and validated the survey findings and have the following features:

<i>Top 3 most selected activities with usefulness rated by the college teacher educators</i>					
	%	5+ times	Less useful	Useful	More useful
Self-study		93.3	3.3	5.0	91.6
Teaching reflection		50.0	5.0	8.3	86.7
Peer studies		15.0	0.0	13.3	86.7
<i>Top 3 least selected activities with usefulness rated by the college teacher educators</i>					
	%	Never	Less useful	Useful	More useful
Mentoring		98.3	0.0	6.7	93.3
Domestic and international exchange and visits		95.0	0.0	40.0	60.0
Formal studies		90.0	0.0	18.3	81.7

Table 6.6 Top 3 most and least selected activities with usefulness rated by the college teacher educators

Firstly, apart from the above-mentioned activities, all of the ten interviewees indicated that teaching study activities were regular and popular professional activities that are normally organised by subject groups, and generally arranged once a week. Eight out of the 10 (80%) interviewees thought such activities were the major approach to professional development within the colleges. The examples below, given by the interviewees from XC and TC, indicate that teaching study activities could give them opportunities to ‘share different thoughts and ideas’ and ‘get feedback’:

In many senses, it depends on reflections and group discussion, because we will have opportunities to share our different thoughts and ideas. (FG03d)

We would discuss anytime and anywhere. We often discuss things in relation to the situation in classes, teaching progression, feedback from the teaching... (FG04b)

Observing colleagues’ teaching is a very effective way for PD. Actually, this way has been part of the regulations of the college. (FG04e)

The results suggest teaching study activities have positive impact on the PD of the teacher educators in colleges. This may be because of the relevance of the activities that are closely

related to their ‘field work’: teaching and practice. However, the results also suggest that these teaching study activities normally needed to be accompanied by experts’ assistance. Eight out of the ten (80%) participants indicated the impact of the experts on their professional development. During the focus group interview with the participants in XC, FG03b and FG03a indicated that Professor W provided them with huge support for their professional growth. The results seem to be in line with the findings above in that university teacher educators also emphasised the significance of the expert human resource.

Learning from the experts is a very good approach to our PD. I remember that we had a very informed expert, Professor W, who is a senior professor in pre-school education. We have learnt a lot from him. If we have experts’ direction, we will improve rapidly. (FG03b)

Professor W used to organise many professional learning activities, such as the book reading club, where we could share experiences of reading different books in relation to our subject matter. (FG03e)

Secondly, as displayed above, the college-based participants were involved in more training courses that are provided by the different institutions than the university-based and the school-based participants. In TC, there are two types of training courses available for teacher educators, which are both organised by the departments and the college, but offered by SHNU. Therefore, whatever their age group and teaching experience, the teacher educators in such colleges had many opportunities to attend training courses. One of the ten participants indicated that the training courses in the college were regular and helpful:

The College invites the staff of SHNU to train us normally for 2 hours every Friday. This is the departmental regular training courses which were launched for all teacher educators in our college. Also, the induction scheme often takes place during the summer holidays. It is normally separated into two parts, one is in July, the other is in August, and each part lasts for about 15 days. Sometimes, the trainers are from SHNU. Sometimes the senior teachers in the department get involved in it. Generally, these training courses are very good. They are beneficial to our teaching. (II04)

The above finding is interesting, as teacher educators in college sector are trained by the university teacher educators. This suggests that teacher educators in the university sector also have another role: teacher educators’ teacher educator. Meanwhile, the quote above

indicates that the participants were happy with the systematic arrangements in place for PD in TC. This can be seen as reflecting the good quality of PD activities for the professional development of the college teacher educators.

Thirdly, the data shows that the college-based teacher educators in Shanghai rarely got involved in research-oriented activities, which is in line with the quantitative results. Six out of the ten (60%) interviewees explained the reasons for this – they neither had time, nor had any such opportunity, although they were aware of the importance of research and most of them were willing to conduct a research project in order to enhance their teaching. This is probably determined by the institutional nature, and the institutional missions.

I have seldom done research studies, since last May when I started here. I am an assistant lecturer and not familiar with research. I think the most important thing for me is to carry out good teaching. So I haven't engaged myself in any research projects...I hope I could commence research studies in 2–3 years' time when I have had time and teaching experience. (FG04c).

Fourthly, the results indicate that the college-based teacher educators did not communicate with nurseries very frequently. In XC, they either went to the nurseries to guide the placement of student teachers or engaged in secondments (See Glossary, p. 222) to nurseries as a nursery teacher working with the other nursery teachers. Both of these types of work commonly were only short-term, thus they were not satisfied with the outcomes of such activities. One of the participants indicated that:

I only have an opportunity to visit nurseries when our students go there for short-term internships, as I don't have any other time to spare. (FG04a)

The results signal that less communication with the nurseries may lead to a lot of negative impact on training nursery teachers. Teacher educators may be less able to provide their student teachers with effective and relevant support, if they have limited familiarity with what happens in the nurseries on a regular basis.

Secondment was regarded as a good approach to their professional development in XC, FG03e indicated that secondment enabled them to act as nursery teachers and gain an understanding of the education that takes place in the nurseries, what nursery teachers want, which was similar to what was described by her colleagues in the focus group interview.

Guazhi Duanlian (secondment) is a very good method for PD which few sectors can easily take advantage of. (FG03e)

Secondment has identified as ‘a good approach’ to the PD of the college teacher educators, which can be seen as a good way to solve the issues that most teacher educators in the college sector have few opportunities to observe and practice in nurseries.

Finally, although the participants recognised that self-study was useful for their professional development, they did not have abundant time, and in fact sometimes worked at home.

As we have to engage in research projects, we have to undertake self-study. We are very busy with teaching during the day so self-study has to be done at home during the evening. (FG04b)

Professional Development Activities in the School Sector

<i>Top 3 most selected activities with usefulness rated by the school teacher educators</i>					
	%	5+ times	Less useful	Useful	More useful
Self-study		97.0	1.0	4.0	95.0
Teaching reflection		91.0	1.0	7.0	92.0
Research		60.0	0.0	5.0	95.0
<i>Top 3 least selected activities with usefulness rated by the school teacher educators</i>					
	%	Never	Less useful	Useful	More useful
Domestic and international exchange and visits		90.0	4.0	26.0	62.0
Formal studies		86.0	0.0	11.0	89.0
Training courses		68.0	11.0	37.0	52.0

Table 6.7 Top 3 most and least selected activities with usefulness rated by the school teacher educators

Table 6.7 shows that the most selected professional development activities, in which the teacher educators within the school sector participated more than 5 times during the academic semester (9/2012–2/2013), are: self-study (97%), teaching reflection (91%), and research (60%), and that the top three least selected professional development activities by

those teacher educators respectively are: domestic and international exchange and visiting (90%), formal studies for advanced academic degrees (86%) and training courses (68%). Including the usefulness rating (see Table 6.7), the results show that more than 99% of the school respondents believed that all these top 3 most selected activities were useful, whilst more than 89% of the respondents believed that the least selected activities were also useful.

The school-based institutions indicated some conflicting results for what the more useful approaches towards the professional development of teacher educators are. They showed that self-study, institutional training and peer studies are similar in usefulness. However, the interviewees looked at connections with schools and school teachers and participation in research projects as additional important methods for their professional development. Only the issue of whether undertaking domestic and international exchanges should be a main approach for their professional development appears to be in doubt. Seventy-nine per cent of the respondents indicated that they preferred such a method, but the school-based interviewees repeatedly indicated that they did not have time and opportunity to go outside their work for professional exchanges. Again, the following points regarding the professional development activities in the school-based institutions complemented and validated the survey results.

Firstly, the school-based teacher educators had to self-study, and in fact they rated this approach as the most selected approach to professional development, but they did not have as much time as they wanted. This raises big challenges for the school-based teacher educators.

We only have fragments of time for self-study. For example, I'm doing a research activity that needs some materials and preparing a lesson that needs some resources. In these cases, I will read and think of what I need. As it is impossible for all of our PD to depend on training institutions, we need to undertake self-study. (FG05d)

Self-study, reflection and enlightenment are very helpful for PD when I listen to the experts and observe teaching. (II06)

Secondly, the data shows that the activities for the school-based institutions were mostly concerned with teaching study and teaching practice with school teachers.

We go to schools to study the situation of students, teachers and class teaching and then make a plan for teachers' work at district level. We especially think about the relevant and universal issues that teachers generally come across, in discussions with colleagues, and then work out how to solve them. (FG05e)

Teaching guide and activities of teaching research, because we need to demonstrate teaching at the beginning of the teaching research activities, observe the teacher's teaching, as well as discussing and giving feedback to teachers during the semester. Sometimes, the head teachers ask us to visit their schools and give them some support. (FG05b)

All the interviewees recognised this interaction between them and the school teachers, namely, they trained school teachers but at the same time the school teachers trained them. They thought they, in fact, were learning partners. This suggests that the relationship between the school-based teacher educators and school teachers is a mentor-mentee and peer study relationship. This collaborative model seems helpful to both the school-based teacher educators and school teachers.

Directing teachers' teaching in schools often involves learning from teachers. When I direct teachers' teaching, I can find many new ideas and problems, and then sort them out, and I in turn apply them to my direction in schools and deal with them as training materials for school teachers. Therefore it is very helpful and a win-win situation... I communicate with school teachers very often. We have close relationships. Also, we have opportunities to visit schools. Actually, we are in short supply. We have already received 8 applications that all want us go to visit them next term, but we can only go to 4 –5 schools (this term). (II06)

Thirdly, the activities in the school-based institutions had the distinctive feature of structured programmes. As this interviewee II06e said:

Each Monday, we have a professional learning meeting; each Tuesday, we organise teaching research activities in different subjects in different schools; on Wednesday and Thursday, we observe teaching in specific schools; and on Friday, we have a Collective Inspection and Research in certain schools. (II06)

This structured work model signals that the school-based teacher educators had a full-booked work agenda; it was difficult for them to have time to reflect on their work and their professional development.

Fourthly, six out of the 10 (60%) interviewees complained that they lacked the opportunities to go on exchanges both aboard and domestically. Below are some examples that they gave:

SMEC has launched a policy that each Teaching Researcher should have an opportunity to visit domestically, but, as you know, this is only a policy. The implementation and all of the costs are paid by each teacher training school, so most of the schools do not have extra funding for such an activity. Also, we are very busy, and so we won't expect this type of opportunity, which actually means nothing. (FG05e)

We have been constrained (regarding going aboard) by so many conditions. I have worked 26 years as a Teaching Researcher, and during this period, I only once saw teaching researchers sent abroad, to Australia in 2003. (FG06e)

This probably because of the situation, described above, of having insufficient financial support and time (as a full booked agenda) for professional development.

Finally, the communication and cooperation between colleagues was flexible and there was informal peer interaction. This may be an easy way for them to discuss the practical issues they met in their training practice.

There are more communications between the colleagues who are in the same subject than those in different subjects. We often have a collective discussion when we visit a school. (FG05e)

Actually, we study in groups divided by subject matter every Friday morning. We take time to exchange and share our ideas through discussions and presentations. Some colleagues who have completed their overseas visits often share their experience with us on these Fridays. (FG05a)

However, a challenge identified by the school-based participants was that they did not have a wide range of colleague interaction, because there were only, at the most, three teaching researchers in the same subject (but not in the same grade). This may be detrimental to knowledge sharing and experience exchange for the school-based teacher educators.

6.5 Support for Professional Development

The respondents were asked to rate their perspectives on working and learning conditions, professional development opportunities, effectiveness of the professional development activities, time for professional development and experiences sharing that the institutions provided for the participated teacher educators in Shanghai. The participants were also asked to comment on the support from people on the teacher educator's side.

Support was split into 'physical support' and 'non-physical support'. The former concerns working conditions and learning materials and the latter policies on teacher education, professional development activities etc. After presenting the physical support, this section reports the findings of the non-physical support in university, college and teacher training school sector, respectively. The support from people on the teacher educators' side will be presented at the end of this section.

	University	College	School	Total	
	<i>Mean (Std. Dev.)</i>				
I was provided with appropriate learning facilities and sufficient learning materials	4.14(0.793)	4.22(0.691)	4.40(0.752)	4.26(0.759)	
I was provided with enough professional development opportunities	1.96(0.553)	1.70(0.743)	2.57(0.756)	2.14(0.773)	W(2, 141.986) = 30.973, p<0.01
The professional development activities were helpful to me	2.36(0.779)	1.83(0.806)	2.59(0.780)	2.33(0.836)	F(2, 249) = 17.523, p<0.01
I undertook an appropriate workload, I had time for professional development	2.33(0.813)	1.22(0.454)	1.16(0.598)	1.60(0.857)	W(2, 159.552) = 72.195, p<0.01
My colleagues worked with, and shared ideas with, me	1.61(0.662)	2.50(0.834)	2.52(0.717)	2.18(0.846)	F(2, 249) = 45.062, p<0.01

Table 6.8 Supports for the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai

Physical support

In Table 6.8, the survey data shows that the mean of 'I was provided with appropriate learning facilities and sufficient learning materials' was over 4 and that the other means were lower than the median 3. This denotes that teacher educators in Shanghai were likely to be provided with relatively satisfactory support, in which the school-based teacher

educators seemed to be the most satisfied ($m=4.40$) and the college-based teacher educators seemed to be more satisfied ($m=4.22$) than the university-based teacher educators ($m=4.14$).

In terms of the qualitative data, 28 out of the 30 (93%) participants believed that their institutions had provided appropriate working and studying facilities and materials for their professional development, and this was also supported by the quantitative results. The participants indicated that they were provided with furnished offices with computers, printers, free internet access, and academic and research databases. Generally, the teacher educators who worked in similar fields were allocated to the same office so that they had more opportunity to communicate with their colleagues, and hence this increased the possibilities for their professional development. In addition, almost all of the participants indicated that they were provided with seminar rooms, reading rooms, meeting rooms and common rooms. Each institution provided teacher educators with a library and resource offices. This offered teacher educators abundant materials. Apart from the above aspects, the university participants indicated that their institutions provided teachers with funds for research projects and domestic and international exchanges or visits, and the university-based and college-based teacher educators indicated that each university or college had at least one library with a huge number of books, academic journals, and electronic materials for its staff. In summary, the results suggest that the teacher educators in different types of institutions were all satisfied with the physical support provided for their professional development. This physical foundation may have a significant positive impact on the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai, because they have appropriate learning spaces, access to learning materials and opportunities to collaborate with colleagues.

Support in the Universities

The two databases confirm that the universities provided their teacher educators with diverse professional development opportunities, such as induction for beginning teachers, municipal training for university teachers, both domestic and international exchanges and visits, mentoring, and teaching inspections etc. Some of the dimensions appeared positive, whereas others appeared negative.

According to the survey data, for ‘I undertook an appropriate workload, I had time for professional development’ the university mean scores were significantly higher than both the college ($p<0.01$) and school ($p<0.01$) mean scores, while for ‘My colleagues worked with, and shared ideas with, me’, the university mean scores were significantly lower than both the college ($p<0.01$) and school ($p<0.01$) mean scores. The above results denote that the workloads of the university-based teacher educators were relatively lighter than those of the college-based and school-based teacher educators, and that the university-based teacher educators interacted with their colleagues less than college-based and school-based teacher educators. The qualitative results confirm the reasons why there was less interaction between the university teacher educators. As FG02 indicated, the working styles of the university teacher educators appear to be one of the reasons that hindered their communications with colleagues.

I found there is an important factor which influences discussion. If you often work in your office, you will have many opportunities to discuss issues with your colleagues. It will be very hard to have a talk with those who teach in the university but work at home. So discussions are mainly subject to the work style of university teachers.
(FG02b)

The participant FG02b revealed the second reason, that there was the policy silence in the institution in relation to peer discussion, although he recognised that peer discussion was more effective and relaxed.

All the discussions were spontaneous, as there was not a fixed system saying what we needed to do. I think private discussion is much more effective than formal discussion which is organised by the department or the college, because private discussion is very relaxed and done voluntarily. (FG02b)

Another factor is about the institutional culture that potentially exists and influences the teacher educators’ actions in experience sharing. As II01 indicated, some of his colleagues feared to share their experiences with the others, as there was a lot of competition between the university teacher educators and also individually. They were not willing to share their experiences because they feared to lose their tenure, academic, positions, and current pay level.

The most distinctive perspectives the qualitative results revealed is that that the university sector emphasised research, and provided many opportunities for the teacher educators in relation to research. For example, FG1a indicated that the university provided them with financial support, and the junior researchers were supported by the senior researchers. II01 indicated that the university had policies and finance for supporting its staff to conduct academic exchange domestically and internationally.

The university attaches great importance to scientific research; the department of scientific research management publish research information regularly, and set up a small amount of funds which are competitive – I am lucky to have won some support. My department has organised the communication of scientific research to young people, to improve young teachers, but it's not for me, a senior teacher. (FG01a)

In relation to research, the most common way is that the universities encourage their staff to visit domestically and internationally. (II01).

As presented in Section 5.2, teacher educators in the university sector undergo great pressure due to research and publication. This has affected teaching quality and teacher educators' well-being and health (Also see p.136).

The qualitative results also show that the novice's teaching qualification has been raised. As FG02 indicated, the new teacher educator has to gain one year induction experience before they can formally teach in the classroom. This year is made up of a period observation followed by a period of teaching practice.

Previously, novices began to teach on their first day, however nowadays they can't teach unless they have completed the teaching instruction by the senior teachers which lasts for at least half a year at the moment. (FG02b)

Apart from providing the induction scheme for beginning university teachers, the universities also launched training centres for the professional development of university teachers. However, the participants indicated that there were no specific training projects for teacher educators, although the quantity of training had been increasing.

Generally, university teachers are trained in the Shanghai Municipal Communist Party School which originally trained administrative officials and recently added training projects for key university teachers in subjects. (II01)

The training that is organised by the university has continually increased. Prior to the induction, we only had one day's training, but at the moment, the induction in our university has been extended to one year. (FG02a)

The participants from SHNU indicated that there are some innovative projects in SHNU, such as the 'Innovative Team' which is sponsored by the university in order to support academic research, and the 'Professional Leadership Project' in which some national well-known experts are employed to lead and direct junior scholars in their professional development, and the 'Talent Special Zone', which provides many special policies for some excellent talents in professional development.

There are three kinds of measures for us: firstly, the university has Innovative Groups, including teaching groups and research groups. The university provides abundant funding for this. Secondly, the university has a project named Professional Leadership that means teachers' professional development is led by some experts. For example, an academic can be invited to lead a project or a team and construct a platform for the professional development of those teachers who have the same research interests. Thirdly, the university carried out a project known as the 'Project of Special Areas for Talented Teachers'. This project aims to attract more and more talented teachers to work in SHNU. (FG02a)

The results displayed above show that there are a lot of strengths in relation to the support for the university-based teacher educators in Shanghai. They are provided with appropriate workload, sufficient financial support, mentoring by senior teacher educators, training programmes and professional leadership supported by experts. These allow the university-based teacher educators to have time, funding, professional leadership and professional development opportunities that are essential to the professional development of a professional, in particular, teacher educators. However, the results suggest that many initiatives provided for the university-based teacher educators are related to research, and that actually they are under huge pressure to conduct research. This then raises the issue that they spend more time on research and less time on teaching (Also see p. 111), which subsequently influences teaching quality for student teachers.

Support in the Colleges

The quantitative results show that college teacher educators had heavier workloads than those teacher educators in the universities, and that for ‘My colleagues worked with, and shared ideas with, me’ college mean scores were significantly higher than university ($p<0.01$) mean scores. The qualitative results also confirm that there were heavy workloads for the teacher educators in the college sector, especially due to teaching and management work. Eight out of 10 (80%) of the interviewees felt that they did not have time for teaching reflection, self-study and other activities required for their professional development.

The qualitative results suggest that the colleges also provided diverse professional development opportunities for their staff, such as induction for beginning teachers, regular lectures, teaching study activities and on-the-job practice in field schools.

One of the interesting findings is that the colleges provided the teacher educators with some ‘regular’ activities, such as teaching study activities, training and lectures. Regular teaching study activities provided opportunities for teacher educators to share their experiences, stories and teaching strategies, and gain critical comments. Seven out of 10 (70%) of the interviewees indicated that peer interaction generally ran through the teaching study activities. As FG04b described, the teacher educators in the same subject (or the same grade) came together to discuss teaching issues. However, II04 indicated that due to the diversity of the subjects which may be organised into one group, peer communication sometimes became relatively ineffective.

We have a regular meeting of the department every Friday, as we all do not have classes on Friday afternoons, so we can prepare lessons as a team then. Also, we have other discussions when we are all in the college or we make an arrangement in advance. (FG03c)

That is the meeting of all teachers in the department. We also have some small-scale meetings with colleagues in the same subjects. (FG03b)

The college provides many activities for our professional development, such as teaching study discussions. (FG04e)

For regular training and lectures, although they were open for all staff and provided opportunities to get fresh ideas from experts, the activity time seemed to occupy the teacher educators' afternoon break in colleges. This appears to involve both human rights issues and issues in relation to the teacher educators' well-being and health. Furthermore, another interesting finding is that the experts were invited from ECNU and SHNU.

The college supports us to engage in some research projects and training projects, such as the Project for Excellent Novice Teachers that supports young teachers' research and training, and so on. Anyway if there are such opportunities the college will fund us to get involved in them. (FG04a)

Our college invites the experts in many specific fields from ECNU and SHNU to give us lectures. The lectures generally take place in the early Friday afternoon, and last about 2 hours. Every teacher is welcome. (FG04c)

The participants from XC indicated a distinctive activity – secondment (known as *Guazhi Duanlian* in Chinese, see Glossary, p. 222) in which most of them were involved. They felt this on-job practice in field schools was helpful for their professional development.

Guazhi Duanlian is a very good method for PD which few sectors can easily take advantage of. What have we done? We went to the nurseries, and taught as nursery teachers. Our college still paid us. Sometimes, we got more out of it than when we worked in the college. We worked there generally for half a year, we learnt a lot from this activity. (FG03e)

The results suggest that the professional support for the college-based teacher educators seems more 'practical'. The provided activities, such as secondment, regular teaching study activities and lectures, appear to connect to the teaching practice and the practical issues the college teacher educators faced. These types of professional support have positive impact on the professional learning of the teacher educators. However, the break time being occupied by the colleges may lead to issues of ethics and human rights, as well as working satisfaction and wellbeing of the college-based teacher educators.

Support in the Teacher Training Schools

In order to investigate group (university, college and school) differences, a One-Way ANOVA was performed (See Table 6.8). In respect to the *post hoc* pairwise comparisons (Games Howell) for 'I was provided with enough professional development opportunities', the school mean score was significantly higher than the mean scores for both college ($p<0.01$) and university ($p<0.01$), while for 'the professional development activities were helpful to me' school mean scores were significantly higher than the mean scores for both university ($p<0.01$) and college ($p<0.01$). For 'I undertook an appropriate workload, I had time for professional development', school mean scores were significantly lower than the mean scores for both college ($p<0.01$) and university ($p<0.01$), while for 'My colleagues worked with, and shared ideas with, me', school mean scores were significantly lower than both the mean scores for college ($p<0.01$) and university ($p<0.01$).

The above stated quantitative results denote that the in-service teacher educators (school-based) believed that they had more professional development opportunities than those teacher educators in initial teacher education (university-based and college-based), that the professional development activities for the school-based teacher educators were more effective than those for the college-based and university-based teacher educators, and that the workloads of the school-based and college-based teacher educators were relatively heavier than those university-based teacher educators. This means that there is a contradiction in that the college-based and school-based teacher educators had more opportunities but had less time, while the university-based teacher educators had more time but fewer professional development opportunities.

The qualitative findings suggest that the school sector provided many practice-oriented activities, such as teaching research activities, and inter-district teaching forums, and that teacher educators in the school sector were involved in many different levels of training sessions. There were also some regular lectures. FG06c indicated that the weekly lectures, provided by the teacher training school, included diverse topics, both theoretical and practical. FG06b also indicated the training programmes involved municipal city level and district level, and that the training content emphasised practical issues.

We have weekly lectures, in which the topics relate to general knowledge, teaching practice.... There is actually regular training, every week, on Monday afternoon, in total more than 10 times per semester. (FG06c)

We sometimes are sent to training programmes. For example, recently we took part in the New Rural Training for Teacher Trainers, which was organised by the Institute of Teaching Studies. Sometimes, the Teacher Training Centre and the Department of Human Resources of Shanghai Municipal Education Commission organise training programmes for us. We felt these types of training were practical. (FG06b)

Eight out of the 10 (80%) participants indicated that the institutions encourage their staff to participate in studies for degree updates, and also offer incentive measures to enhance the teacher educators' professional development. Both FG05a and FG06b indicated that the government and the institution financially pushed their staff to get involved in professional development activities.

The school and the Institute of Teaching Research (a department of Shanghai Municipal Education Commission) both encouraged us to get involved in formal studies, e.g. Ph.D. and Ed.D. If we get involved in them, the school provides part of our tuition fees for us, but they do not encourage off-the-job studies, as they do not want our work to be interrupted. (FG05a)

For example, the school encourages us to work hard, and if we reach the requirements, we will be selected as a top teacher who can have a lot of award and professional development opportunities. (FG05b)

The interaction between the teacher educators and school teachers was quite frequent for their professional development. FG05c indicated the primary roles of the teacher educators in teacher training schools. They worked for, and interacted with, school teachers every day. They were offered opportunities to understand school teachers' professional lives and needs, and this ultimately benefits teacher educators in defining their professional development needs. FG06a indicated that informal communication took place frequently among their colleagues.

We work with school teachers. We always prepare lessons for school teachers, we observe the teaching of school teachers, we give feedback, we organise teaching study activities for school teachers, we organise teaching competitions for school teachers, and we get in touch with school teachers every day. (FG05c)

We have a lot of discussions, as soon as we meet any problems in our subject. This type of discussion is quite informal; we may discuss anytime, anywhere, if we want.
(FG06a)

The results suggest that although teacher educators in the school-based sector have heavier workload, they are still provided with more PD opportunities, such as regular lectures given by the experts in the field; and incentive measures for formal studies, as well as more opportunities to interact with school teachers. These activities and initiatives seem more ‘practice-oriented’ and closely connect to school practice. As the school-based teacher educators work with school teachers almost every day, they may easily understand the professional learning needs of school teachers. This is helpful for teacher educators to define what they need to learn and improve, and at the same time, the support provided to the school teachers may be more relevant and effective.

Support from people on the teacher educator’s side

Table 6.9 shows the means of the four types of people who influenced the professional development of teacher educators. The totals mean scores of experienced teachers/experts/supervisors, colleagues, and student teachers/school teachers, respectively, were 4.73, 4.54 and 3.91, which were higher than the median 3. The mean score of institutional leaders was 1.92, which was the lowest mean below the median 3. In order to investigate group (university, college and school) differences a One-Way ANOVA was performed (See Table 6.9). In respect to *post hoc* pairwise comparisons (LSD) for institutional leaders, university mean scores were significantly lower than college ($p<0.05$) mean scores, In respect to *post hoc* pairwise comparisons (LSD) for experienced teachers/experts/supervisor, student teachers/school teachers and colleagues, university mean scores were significantly lower than both college ($p<0.05$) and school ($p<0.05$) mean scores.

	University	College	School	Total	Test statistic
	<i>Mean (Std. Dev.)</i>				
Institutional leaders	1.77(0.728)	1.80(0.860)	2.14(0.975)	1.92(0.878)	$W(2, 146.738) = 4.808, p < 0.01$
Experienced teachers/experts/Supervisors	4.62(0.510)	4.80(0.403)	4.79(0.456)	4.73(0.471)	$W(2, 154.395) = 4.808, p < 0.01$
Colleagues	4.39(0.592)	4.62(0.524)	4.64(0.542)	4.54(0.566)	$F(2, 249) = 5.461, p = 0.05$
Students teacher/school teachers	3.45(0.869)	3.93(0.821)	4.33(0.726)	3.91(0.888)	$F(2, 249) = 29.082, p < 0.01$

Table 6.9 Means, standard deviation and One-Way ANOVA of people who impacted on the professional development of female teacher educators in Shanghai

The results denote that except for institutional leaders, the respondents believed that experienced teachers/experts/supervisors, colleagues, and student teachers/school teachers had a strong positive impact on their professional development. This view is in line with the interviewees' responses. In a lot of their responses, participants described and emphasised how important the different groups of people were. Some examples representative of the participants' views have been selected and listed, below.

The most positive factor that influences me is my teachers who taught me when I was at university. For example, I first met professor A (anonymity) in the Northwest University when I was an undergraduate student. He never sat down when he was teaching in the classroom. He thought a teacher educator shouldn't sit down in front of his students, and he believed that a teacher educator should know everything about what he teaches rather than teach by just reading the materials in the classroom. These two points have always influenced me. I admire both my Master's supervisor and doctoral supervisor Professor B (Anonymity), who has also instructed me a lot. (II02)

Actually, the best way to go about professional development for the novice teacher educators is to learn from the Special Grade Teachers [a title for the recognition of expert school teachers, see Glossary, p. 223] or the leading figures in the subjects. (FG05b)

Learning from experts is a very good approach towards our professional development. I remember that we had a very informed expert Professor W (Anonymity) who is a

senior professor in pre-school education. We have learnt a lot from him. If we have experts' support, we improve rapidly. (FG03b)

The interviewee II02 indicated that his master supervisor and Ph.D. supervisor had a great impact on his professional development while FG03b indicated that she learnt a lot from the subject expert. Both experts had a strong academic working background in higher education. The experts that FG05b indicated were another sort of expert who had a lot of working experience in teaching in the basic education field and worked as school teachers. So, the primary characteristic of these experts is that they have a lot of expertise and practical experience in the field.

The results suggest that the school-based teacher educators felt that their institutional leaders had more influence on their professional development than those teacher educators in higher education (university-based and school-based), while there was no significant difference between the university-based and the college-based teacher educators. Institutional leaders in Shanghai generally have an administrative role. However, they are normally selected as experts who have excellent performance in academic research. Rather than being an expert in administrative leadership, they are more like professional leaders. They are not only responsible for the administration of the institution that the teacher educators work in, but also act as academic leaders in supporting and directing the professional development of teacher educators (Chen and Wu, 2013). The school-based participants indicated that their professional performance was assessed usually based on observation followed by a feedback session or an annual appraisal meeting by their leaders. Therefore, they fear a judgemental approach. However, in the initial teacher education institutions, teacher educators' professional performance was supervised by the teaching and research committee which consist of different types of members, such as subject leaders, senior professors, and semi-retired or retired professors. So, the organisational culture is more likely to be a leading factor for the participants' perspectives on the institutional leader dimension.

The results suggest that colleagues are an important human resource for impacting on teacher educators' professional development. As presented above, there was close peer study between the school-based teacher educators and school teachers, and close peer study between colleagues in the colleges. However, this type of relationship in the universities was very rare. The university-based participants confirmed that this was due to there being no enforced regulations requiring teacher educators to work in their offices

during the working day. This caused many difficulties in arranging for the participants to work together. A number of the participants indicated that they would like to interact with each other, but they could not do it, as on many occasions, they could not meet on campus. On the other hand, again, they had a fear of sharing their experiences with their colleagues, as there was fierce competition among them. Therefore, the universities need to build a supportive and safe atmosphere.

There was a significant difference in the recognition of the influence of student teachers/school teachers on them between the teacher educators in different types of institutions. The school-based teacher educators were the most aware of this influence and the college-based were more aware than the university-based teacher educators. The study indicates that feedback from the student teachers/school teachers in relation to the work of the teacher educators is useful because informal student feedback collected by the individual teacher educators has proven to be more conducive to professional growth and reduces the commonly held defensive attitude to standardised student feedback.

6.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter presents the findings in relation to the second research question (i.e. what are the opportunities and challenges for the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai?). The findings report on four primary dimensions in relation to the current situation in the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. Firstly, for the purposes of professional development, the results suggest that teacher educators have clear specific reasons for participating in professional development, in particular practice-oriented professional development. Secondly, the results also suggest that the participants have strong professional developmental needs. An ‘addition’ of more professional development opportunities and a ‘subtraction’ of workloads are required. Thirdly, for approaches to professional development, the results display the most selected and least selected approaches within the university, college and school sectors. The results suggest that the university-based and school-based teacher educators tend to participate in one-way professional development activities, such as self-study and research. The college-based teacher educators tend to participate in two-way professional activities. Fourthly, for

support of the professional development, the results suggest that the participants are satisfied with the physical support, but not the non-physical support.

The research findings provide an indication of the quality and impact of professional development of the teacher educators in Shanghai, and of the significance of differences between the different types of institutions. The teacher educators' motivation for, needs and approach to, professional development, and the support by different institutions, varied. This had different levels of quality and impact on the professional development of teacher educators. For example, the city level training project was not identified as a more effective approach to the professional development of the university-based teacher educators (See p.159), but departmental training courses were welcomed by the college-based teacher educators (See p.149). Significance of the impact of PD in the three types of institutions varied. For example, it appeared that the university-based teacher educators did not want to work in teams, whilst the college-based teacher educators had strong interaction with colleagues and the school-based teacher educators worked with school teachers and viewed this as a positive approach to their professional development. The results signal that the teacher educators' interpretation of what counts as quality of professional development varies and is linked to organisational culture. For example, in universities, teacher educators' notion of quality of professional development was that they thought a strong mentoring system is important. In colleges, teacher educators' notion of quality of professional development was that they were working in collaboration; in the teacher training schools, teacher educators had a practical way of working with school teachers. When the university-based teacher educators' placed emphasis on the research, they then looked for professional development activities that matched some of the requirements in the organisational culture.

The next chapter discusses all the findings that have been presented in Chapters 5–6.

Chapter 7 The Professional Development of Teacher Educators in Shanghai: Opportunities and Challenges

7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the opportunities and challenges for the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai following the presentation and interpretation of the findings in Chapters 5–6. The knowledge, practice and policy implications for the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai are outlined.

This chapter discusses these findings based on the research questions (i.e. what are the professional identities of teacher educators in Shanghai? what are the opportunities and challenges for the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai?), mainly drawing from the perspectives of policy change and organisational culture. In doing this, I have drawn on the policies discussed in Chapter 2, the literature reviewed in Chapter 3, as well as on the findings presented in Chapters 5–6.

Although identity was the focus of my first research question, the collected data showed that the teacher educators' emphasis was more on their roles and responsibilities than on their identity. Both Western and Chinese literature has identified that it is difficult for people to differentiate identity from role (Castells, 2011; Mayer, 1999; Day et al., 2007; Kang, 2012; Li, 2012). Thus, at the data analysis stage, I refocused and paid more attention to roles and responsibilities, and less to identity. The issue in relation to the identity of Chinese teacher educators requires further research to understand its implications.

7.2 Teacher Educators' Roles and Responsibilities

The results suggest that half of the teacher educators in different teacher education institutions took on a triple role of teaching, research and management whilst 40% took on a dual role (i.e. teaching and research, teaching and management, research and management), and 10% took on a single role (i.e. teaching, research and management) (See Figure 5.1, p. 114). The diversity of emphases on the professional roles of teacher

educators in Shanghai is also stressed in a wide range of research (e.g. Smith, 2011; Wang, 2011; Swennen et al., 2010; Day, 2004). The most useful model is Swennen et al. (2010) which indicates that there are five ‘tribes’ of teacher educators, i.e. teacher educators as school teachers, as teachers in higher education, as researchers, as teachers of teachers and as generic teachers. They set out three layers with five sub-identities of teacher educators in the model, in which the first-level teacher is located in the centre, the second-level teacher and the teacher in higher education are located in the second layer, and the third layer is for researchers. This study uses a different model based on teaching, research and management, which are equally located in the outer layer, with three dual overlapping areas: teaching and research; teaching and management; and research and management. The core of the model consists of the triple role of teaching, research and management combined. Unlike in the model of Swennen et al. (2010), a teacher educator in Shanghai has only one of the seven different but parallel roles. The most distinctive difference from the model of Swennen et al. (2010) is that this model stresses ‘teacher educators as managers’, i.e. management as part of the work of a teacher educator in Shanghai. This gives an understanding of teacher educators’ roles in Shanghai’s educational context and enriches our knowledge of teacher educator role models in international debates.

The results show that the balance of teacher educator’s roles, in the different sectors in Shanghai, varied. The university-based teacher educators emphasised research more, while the college-based emphasised teaching more, and the school-based teacher educators recognised themselves as mentors of school teachers. This study agrees with Snoek and Žogla (2009) who stress that the identity of teacher educators develops within the community of teacher education, and whether or not a sub-identity of teacher educator is available depends on the context. This study identifies that teacher educators’ roles in Shanghai seem imbalanced and dislocated within the organisational culture in which the teacher educators work. A wide range of Chinese literature indicates that these variations are due to the hierarchy of institutions in China (Long, 2009; Chen and Long, 2012) which push teacher educators to get involved in a lot of professional practice in different areas (Zhu, 2010; Li, 2008). This situation is most likely to be caused by policy directions and assessment systems. Policy affects the institutional commissions (Sabatier, 1988). For the universities, the national ‘Project 985 university’ and the ‘Project 211 university’ (See Glossary, see pp. 221-222), and other regional financial projects, motivate universities to emphasise research in order to gain more national grants and raise their ranking position in order to survive. As two professors described in their interviews, Chinese teacher

education has moved from ‘teacher preparation’ to ‘teacher education’, and teacher education has changed from a ‘closed system’ to an ‘open system’, in that non-normal universities and colleges have become involved in initial teacher education. As a result, initial teacher education is becoming more diverse. This leads to the university-based and college-based teacher educators having to redefine their roles and responsibilities for initial teacher education. For the university-based teacher educators, this policy direction implies that staff performance is subject to research performance rather than anything else. Thus, the institutional commissions, in turn, determine the assessment system. The universities thus set up the assessing criterion focusing more on research performance rather than on teaching (Li and Cao, 2008). This could be one of the reasons why the university participants responded that research was the centre of teacher educators’ roles. This study has identified that this situation challenges the university sector to emphasise research, resulting in this sector placing less emphasis on teaching. This imbalance and dislocation of the teacher educators’ role play seems unacceptable, as it deviates from the targets of SMEC which emphasise training ‘compound talents’ for Shanghai’s education system (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2010). A clear recommendation for good practice therefore has to be to encourage balancing both teaching and research in initial teacher education institutions. Thus, teacher educators in higher education should be encouraged to focus on both teaching and research into teacher education simultaneously, and this should positively correlate with performance assessment and promotion.

There is an interesting finding on teacher educators’ identity which suggests that a few of the university teachers and researchers did not recognise themselves as teacher educators (See Chapter 5, p.114). This was an assumption made by the research undertaken by the European Commission (2013), and was confirmed by this study. Those who did not recognise themselves as teacher educators in this study were also identified as the teacher educators who concentrated on a single role, such as research fellow in a research institute, or a teacher in a specific subject in a department. Therefore a recommendation from this study for practice is to encourage institutions to provide those teacher educators with more opportunities to engage in teacher education rather than concentrating only on research or teaching and to help them develop an understanding of themselves as teacher educators.

As highlighted previously, in the data the teacher educators’ responses concentrated more on roles and responsibilities, and less on identity. It may be important to include identity of teacher educators in future research, as this is still an issue to be explored.

7.3 Teacher Educators' Career Motivations and Pathways

There is no existing research on the career motivation of teacher educators in China. This is one of the contributions that this study makes.

Firstly, this study proposes that teacher educators in Shanghai had specific reasons for becoming teacher educators, in which social status and a stable position were emphasised as the most important reasons. Therefore, social status and a stable position can be suggested as the most important factors for giving teacher educators confidence and a feeling of belonging. This is a positive factor, as Sachs (2012) stresses that one of the most important elements of a mature profession is that the members have a strong feeling of belonging, shared values and confidence. This kind of confidence and feeling of belonging improves the self-efficacy of teacher educators (Bandura, 1997). In China, as the policy maker Professor Gu states (See Chapter 2, p.45), the teaching profession is a respected occupation and the government places teacher education as one of the most important national strategies for a powerful country. This increases the attraction of teacher education and attracts more and more talented people to become involved.

Secondly, this study gives an insight into the differences in the career motivation of teacher educators in the different sectors. The results indicate that the college-based teacher educators placed more emphasis on social status and a stable position than the university-based and school-based teacher educators, while they felt that their income was lower than their expectations. As described in Chapter 4 (See p. 89), TC is an independent institution which is self-financed; the pay in this institution is more competitive and employment more demanding than in government-funded teacher education institutions. XC was a secondary occupational school that was updated to the current college with part of its mission being the training of school teachers. Thus, the college teacher educators there had no more sense of security than the university and school based teacher educators. A clear recommendation for improving the attraction of this occupation has to be to encourage the government and institutions to take more initiatives for teacher educators in the different settings, such as increase of salary level, and building a strong sense of security.

The literature has identified the main career pathways that people take to enter teacher education. For example, in the UK and many Anglophone countries, most teacher educators move into universities after teaching in schools (Harrison and McKeon, 2008;

Murray and Male, 2005; Murray, 2008). In Cyprus, teacher educators come from universities and the Cyprus Pedagogical Institute (Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou, 2013). In the Netherlands, teacher education is the responsibility of the higher education institutions, and teachers in higher education are identified as teacher educators (Lunenberg and Willemse, 2006). This study provides a different perspective from those described above, because, in Shanghai, the majority of teacher educators in initial teacher education are teachers in the schools of education, and the teachers of school subjects in higher education. Most of them become teacher educators after graduating from higher education institutions, and do not have experience of working as school teachers. The majority of the in-service teacher educators become teacher educators after working in schools. There are two main differences between Shanghai's teacher educators' career pathways and those of teacher educators in some countries across the world: firstly, the majority of the higher education-based teacher educators do not have experience of working as school teachers; secondly, most teacher educators who come from schools do not work in initial teacher education.

Although there are some differences in relation to the career pathways of teacher educators between the West and Shanghai, there is a similar point in that teacher educators in both contexts have identified a range of issues and tensions, albeit different ones. For example, Murray (2008), van Velzen et al. (2010) and Griffiths et al. (2013) identify that most teacher educators in Western countries move into universities after teaching in schools, and have to make the transition from school to university and a further transition from a predominantly teaching role to a wider academic role which includes research. This creates a range of issues and tensions for teacher educators when they enter higher education. Williams and Ritter (2010) and Wood and Borg (2010) describe the difficulties of this transitional period in terms of changing professional identities, not helped by a lack of institutional support. Teachers who were in high positions in schools move into low positions in higher education, i.e. from expert to novice, with the accompanying lower status often given to teacher education. Teacher educators in Shanghai also confront transition difficulties. On the one hand, teacher educators who take a graduate pathway lack school experience and experience in academic disciplines and have to undertake a dual transition, i.e. from a postgraduate to a teacher educator in higher education (initial teacher education), and from an academic to an expert in practice having to learn about pedagogy and familiarise themselves with school contexts. As described in their interviews by the two policymakers (See Chapter 2, p.35), Shanghai has been experimenting with several pilot Master's level programmes for teacher education. This leads to challenges to

those novice university teacher educators, even to those senior university teacher educators, as the academic level of the student teachers they work with has been raised higher than before; and meeting student teachers' learning needs calls for the university-based teacher educators to redefine their roles and responsibilities, as well as knowledge and competencies. On the other hand, the teacher educators who take a school teacher pathway have to make the transition from a school teacher to an in-service teacher educator, and face the challenges of gaining education qualifications. This study provides a unique perspective on teacher educators' career pathways that enriches knowledge of the professional identity, roles and responsibilities of teacher educators. Considering the above situation, a recommendation for solving these issues would be that the government should formulate selection criteria that emphasise school experience for the teacher educators in higher education, and should encourage teacher educators in school-based institutions to undertake formal studies to update their degree, such as a Ph.D. in education studies, or an Ed.D.

7.4 Teacher Educators' Professional Knowledge and Competencies

A wide range of research into teacher knowledge and competencies (e.g. Shulman, 1986; Shulman, 1987; Day, 1995; Fish, 1995), and the literature in relation to required professional knowledge and competencies that has emerged recently, e.g. John (2002), Smith (2005), Koster et al. (2005) and Celik (2011), has identified both teacher expertise and teacher educator expertise but this study provides another investigation into teacher educators' perspectives on the degree to which teacher educators gain this expertise, and on the differences between sectors in relation to the distinct knowledge and competences that teacher educators should have.

In terms of the degree of mastery of professional knowledge and competencies, the results strongly recognise the breadth and depth of knowledge and competencies that teacher educators should have. This was shown by the many comparative adjective terms used by the participants when comparing teacher educators' roles and responsibilities to teachers, such as 'wider', 'deeper', 'more', 'higher'. This type of description is limited in the existing research. This study can be seen as an attempt to investigate the breadth and depth of the knowledge and competencies required by teacher educators and school teachers.

In terms of how the professional expertise of teacher educators differs from that of school teachers, some aspects of the results are in line with the findings from the research by Goodwin and Kosnik (2013) and Davison et al. (2005), which emphasise knowledge of children and adults; and the research by Timmerman (2009) and Lunenberg et al. (2007), which finds that modelling is an important part of a teacher educator's knowledge. This study distinguishes what knowledge teachers should have, and what knowledge teacher educators should have. This study offers the perspectives of teacher educators on not only teacher knowledge but also teacher educator knowledge.

This study has also confirmed that teacher educators in different institutions viewed teacher educator knowledge and competences in different ways. Eighty-one per cent of the participants in Shanghai considered research competency as being one part of their professional roles, in which the university-based and school-based teacher educators emphasised research more than the college-based teacher educators. For school-based teacher educators, the 'research' in this study was 'teaching research' or 'applied research in teaching and curricula', as differentiated from the university-based teacher educators' 'scientific research'. This was also a finding from the research by Murray and Male (2005) and Yogeve and Yogeve (2006), which state that research is the most basic requirement of teachers in higher education; and of Cochran-Smith (2005) which further argues that, as part of the responsibilities of teacher educators, conducting research can complement the practical part of their work. This study highlights that research is an important part of teacher educators' knowledge and competencies, as well as an important approach to their professional development. Between the former and the latter, there exists a cause-effect relationship. In contrast to the findings of the above five authors, another contribution of this study is that it is evident that the school-based teacher educators in Shanghai considered research as an important knowledge and competence base for a school-based teacher educator.

7.5 Teacher Educators' Professional Commitment and Retention

Little research has focused on teacher educators' commitment and loyalty in China, so, the findings of this study provide a significant contribution. The contribution of this study regarding teacher educators' commitment and loyalty involves three aspects: (a) the results

confirm that the respondents in Shanghai were strongly willing to stay in teacher education and this occupation had relatively high attraction. The school-based teacher educators had the highest level and the college-based and university-based teacher educators had a relatively low level. (b) The teacher educators who did not recognise themselves as teacher educators had lower commitment towards teacher education, and seventy percent came from universities where they were serving in a single role of a subject teacher, or an educational researcher. (c) There were no significant differences between age, title and years of work, but the school-based female teacher educators and the teacher educators who had a lower degree had a higher level of commitment and loyalty towards teacher education. These results signal that teacher educators' commitment and loyalty is not subject to age and experience, but may depend on gender and education.

This study draws on Ting and Yeh's (2014) model on both behavioural and attitudinal loyalty and only focuses on one of the six dimensions of Crosswell's (2006) commitment model (i.e. the work time that the teacher educators spent on teacher education). The findings are useful for understanding the differences in professional commitment and loyalty between teacher educators in the different sectors in Shanghai. These results are consistent with those of the European Commission (2013) which indicate that teacher educators have varying levels of commitment towards teacher education. The findings of this study fill in the knowledge gap of the amount of time teacher educators in Shanghai spend on their job. This can be seen as a starting point to investigate commitment and loyalty of teacher educators from the perspectives of teacher educators in different organisational contexts. A relatively wide range of research based on further dimensions of Crosswell's model is needed.

Although some research focuses on developing strategies for attracting and retaining teachers and other professionals to rural and remote areas (Trinidad et al., 2010; Miles et al., 2006; Priyadharshini and Robinson-Pant, 2003), and a number of studies have emphasised that teacher educators are a significant occupational group for teacher quality and student attainment (Murray, 2014; Loughran, 2014; Li, 2012; Koster et al., 2008), there appears to be few studies investigating whether or not teacher education is an attractive occupation. This study provides the knowledge to bridge some of this gap by adopting an empirical approach to investigate the perspectives of teacher educators concerning their professional attraction and retention. The results suggest that the professional attraction and retention of teacher education in Shanghai were recognised by

the participants as being high. The university-based teacher educators thought teacher education was more attractive than the school-based and the college-based, and the male teacher educators with a higher degree and longer working experience had a higher sense of belonging to teacher education.

This provides a Chinese perspective on this point for teacher education. This is helpful to understand the differences between the teacher educators and other professions, and the way in which the profession attracts teacher educators, how it benefits the enhancement of the professional development of teacher educators, as well as the differences between different institutional settings. However, the data cannot answer the question as to why the teacher educators were willing to remain in the profession, in a way that reflects the model of three distinguishing levels of professional commitment of Meyer et al. (1993) (See p. 66), which needs to be further investigated.

7.6 Professional Development of Teacher Educators in Shanghai

This section discusses the opportunities for, and challenges to, the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. The purposes of professional development, the professional development needs, the approaches to professional development, and support for professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai are discussed in turn.

7.6.1 Purposes of Professional Development

The findings suggest that the participants in this study had a strong desire to participate in professional development. These motivations included both internal motivations and external motivations that have been classified by international studies. Katz and Coleman (2005) and Smith (2005) indicate that in Israel and Norway, respectively, the teacher educators need to have a Ph.D. and are under huge pressure to be researchers, which puts increasing emphasis more on research and causes them to pay less attention to teaching.

In terms of external motivation, Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou (2013) and Smith (2003) emphasise the extent to which teacher educators secure tenure, higher salaries, increased responsibilities and promotion. This study confirms that all these factors apply to teacher education in Shanghai as well, but also suggests that the university-based and the school-based teacher educators were more concerned with promotion whilst the college-based teacher educators were more concerned with tenure and salaries. This situation is probably due to the organisational culture (such as institutional commissions, institutional hierarchies) described in Section 7.2.2 (See p.172). The college-based teacher educators, who worked in the independent institutions, needed more sense of security than the teacher educators in the public institutions. So, a recommendation here would be that the colleges should create relatively more opportunities for the staff to build up their sense of belonging to the institution.

In terms of internal motivation, the studies discussed above are related to the general situation of teacher educators' motivation for professional development. This study, however, suggests that teacher educators in different types of organisations in Shanghai are more likely to have different types of emphasis on internal motivations towards their professional development. The university participants emphasised strengthening professional status within academia more whilst college-based and school-based teacher educators emphasised solving practically-orientated issues more. This situation reflects the *status quo* of teacher education in China, e.g. the university teacher educators focus on scientific research mostly, while the college and school-based teacher educators closely connect to teacher education, either teaching or mentoring, or both. This leads to a trend that teacher educators in different types of institutions may have different types of impact on teacher education in Shanghai. Student teachers in universities may receive more benefit in terms of research knowledge and skills from the university-based teacher educators, and student teachers and school teachers may receive more benefit in terms of practice-oriented teaching and learning from the college-based and school-based teacher educators.

The results of this study align closely with those of Koster et al. (2008) on the professional development of Dutch teacher educators, which indicate that the participants were more directed towards the improvement of knowledge and skills, rather than towards attitudes and beliefs. However, this study found that the purposes of improvement of knowledge and skills for teacher educators in Shanghai seemed to be subject to their professional roles.

For example, the university-based teacher educators preferred to improve academic research skills in order to strengthen their professional status while the college-based and school-based teacher educators emphasised practice-oriented knowledge and skills in order to solve issues within practice.

7.6.2 Professional Development Needs

Some international literature, e.g. Wilson (1990), Buchberger et al. (2000) and Koster et al. (2008), indicates that teacher educators in European countries and the United States usually enter the field without any formal preparation, and often with little or no support from the institution. This study agrees with these perspectives. The findings suggest that teacher educators in Shanghai make strong demands on professional development that are mostly reflected in their difficulties during this transition period. This study provides new insight as the diverse needs were highly consistent with the different professional roles of the teacher educators and were impacted by policies and organisational cultures. In this study, the university-based participants had a strong desire to build their research identity, but they lacked a collaborative environment, while the college-based and school-based teacher educators needed more opportunities and time, as well as sufficient funding and professional leadership.

This study agrees with a number of studies (Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou, 2013; Griffiths et al., 2013; Murray, 2008) which argue that there are many barriers that constrain the professional development of teacher educators, such as time, workload, and funding, but it extends the knowledge of the range of barriers to the professional development of teacher educators within the university-based, college-based and school-based contexts in Shanghai. For example, some participants in the sample identified barriers in the form of salary issues, inequality in policies and/or incentive measures between the teacher educators in different subjects, and in the negative effects of having to deal with trivia. These issues point to the need for support from the institutions, which have been identified as one of the important learning factors in Eraut's (2007) model. Care should be taken by the institutions and policy makers in relation to the professional development needs revealed in this study. These needs may be influenced by the effectiveness of institutional support and the issues of policy enactment discussed in Chapter 2, such as, non-normal institutions getting involved in initial teacher education (See p. 43), introduction of Master

level initial teacher education (See p. 43), and integration of pre-service and in-service teacher education (See p. 44). Whether these needs are met will impact on teacher educators' professional identity, roles, responsibility and commitment (Day et al., 2007; Ting and Yeh, 2014), and the attraction of teacher education, and would be likely to have an impact on the teachers they work with (Day, 2004). So, I would suggest that policy makers and institutions should closely work with teacher educators and listen carefully to their voices in order to investigate and understand their needs, before making policies and designing professional development activities.

7.6.3 Approaches to Professional Development

The study has confirmed that there were diverse activities and approaches that the teacher educators in Shanghai engaged in for their professional development, which were subject to their knowledge, their experience, the institution culture that they belonged to, and their learning preferences. For example, as their primary approach to professional development, the university-based teacher educators preferred research which is linked to the university organisational culture (e.g. performance appraisals, institutional missions and norms) (See p.142). The results also suggest that the professional development activities that they engaged in were not necessarily the activities that they preferred. This finding agrees with Eraut (2007) who identifies major learning factors as being a mixture of individual and workplace elements.

The results suggest that university-based teacher educators mostly participated in self-led professional activities (i.e. self-study, teaching reflection and research), known as 'learning from others without interaction' (Koster et al. 2008). This implies there is a lack of strong collaborative organisational culture for the university-based participants, although most of them (90%) believed that peer studies would be more useful. This perspective differs from that in much of the literature (Lunenberg et al., 2011; Griffiths et al., 2013; McGee and Lawrence, 2009), as this study shows that the university-based teacher educators appeared to not do what they believed would be of most benefit. This is probably due to cultural influences: they recognised that communities of practice or situated learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) would be helpful for their professional development, but they still insisted on self-directed learning. The teacher educators identified several barriers to peer study forms of professional development, such as insufficient institutional support

and competition between the teacher educators. A further recommendation is therefore to ensure that collaborative projects are introduced, preferably as suggested by the teacher educators themselves. In addition, formulating regular structured teaching and research activities would improve the distant relationships between colleagues.

As described above, Murray and Male (2005) and Yogeve and Yogeve (2006) state that research is the most basic requirement for teachers in higher education, and the most stressful part of the professional development activities for teacher educators. Cochran-Smith (2005) argues that, as part of the responsibilities of teacher educators, conducting research can complement the practical aspect of their work. This study agrees with this perspective, but identifies a concern that teacher educators often emphasise research more than teaching, leading to the weakening of the teaching quality in universities (Wang, 2010). This situation should not be acceptable and is attributable to the way in which performance appraisal in universities in China is unbalanced (Long, 2009). Research is an important part of the professional development of teacher educators but, in some cases, it can become a burden. Therefore, I would suggest that teacher educator institutions need to improve their policy on performance appraisal and encourage the university-based teacher educators to find a better balance between research and teaching. Teacher educators should have opportunities to choose what roles and responsibilities they prefer; focus on both teaching and research into teacher education should be encouraged and should positively correlate with performance assessment and promotion.

The college-based participants identified a mixture of professional learning approaches which included both self-study and peer studies. They also identified a contradiction in that mentoring was a highly rated category but there was a lack of participation in it. This situation suggests that the mentoring system has not yet been established in the colleges, but, as the results suggest, it has developed well in the university sector. Livingston (2014), Griffiths et al. (2010) and Davey and Ham (2010) found that support from mentors and coordinators outside the supervisor role was more highly valued by more experienced researchers among the teacher educators, who had begun to build up confidence in their own research and enjoyed discussing research plans and 'being challenged', as one put it. I recommend that the colleges should be encouraged to introduce a mentoring system and arrange for experienced staff to work with teacher educators, in particular with the novices. The university mentoring model shown in this study (See p. 141) should be used as an example for the colleges.

Formal studies were highly rated by the college-based teacher educators, but most of them did not participate in this sort of professional development activity. The results agree with many studies (e.g. Smith, 2010; Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou, 2013) which encourage teacher educators to get involved in formal studies. This perhaps is not happening at present because of the barriers that the teacher educators identified, such as heavy administrative and teaching loads and, in some cases, insufficient institutional support. So this study recommends that the college-based (and also school-based) institutions should be encouraged preferably to allocate limited teaching hours to the teacher educators and to offer sufficient time and funds to support teacher educators to participate in formal studies.

The findings suggest that the college participants did not have opportunities to interact with schools, although they had a strong desire to do so. As Koster et al. (2008) stress, teacher educators can learn a lot from the stories they hear from children in schools. This sort of experience helps teacher educators understand what is happening in schools in these changing times, and what they should provide their student teachers with, in order to enable them to meet the children's learning needs. Although 'secondment' has been identified as a helpful way to support professional learning in the XC, there was a lack of school interaction in the college sector, in contrast to the situation in the universities and the teacher training schools. So, the colleges should provide such opportunities and make time for the college teacher educators to undertake practice in the schools, this can also link to the experiences of the 'secondment scheme' (See p. 222) that has been successfully practiced in XC.

The school-based participants in this study also took a mixture of professional learning approaches, which included both self-led and peer studies, but these differed slightly from the approaches that the college participants adopted. The school-based participants identified that they had close working relationships with school teachers, and experienced learning as they taught and observed. This view is in line with the proposition of Dewey (1938) that

An experience is the experience between an individual and his or her environment (objects and other people). In an educational environment, an experience involves the interaction between both the objective conditions (the educator's actions, the materials the learner interacts with, and the social set-up of the learning situation) and the learner's internal conditions (his or her personal needs, attitudes, desires, capacities, and purposes). (Dewey, 1938: 43-44)

However, this sort of peer interaction is limited to the teacher educators communicating with school teachers, rather than with colleagues. This challenge is attributed to there being at most three teaching researchers in the same subject (but not in the same grade). Thus, I would suggest that a regional teaching researcher group should be set up for teacher researchers from different districts in the same subject to address this issue.

7.6.4 Support for Professional Development

Very little research pays attention to ‘physical support’, as it seems to be taken for granted that the institutions of teacher education should provide this. This study suggests that Shanghai’s teacher educators were provided with appropriate working conditions and learning materials, which is a positive factor for the professional development of teacher educators. The ‘non-physical support’ for the development of teacher educators is complex, as different departments, institutions, and countries may provide different types of non-physical support for teacher educators (Ben-Peretz et al., 2010). Although there is a lot of literature that describes non-physical support for the development of teacher educators (e.g. Smith, 2003; Lunenberg and Willemse, 2006; Koster et al., 2008; Kabakci et al., 2010; Li, 2012; Griffiths et al., 2013; Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou, 2013), each of these studies focus on a single institutional context, either school-based or university-based. This study provides insight into the differences of the support that is provided by universities, colleges and teacher training schools in Shanghai.

In contrast to ‘physical support’, the results suggest that the non-physical support available to the participants in Shanghai was relatively insufficient and was determined by the policy direction, organisational culture and roles of the teacher educators. For example, as heavy workloads existed in the colleges and the schools, the institutions had to decrease the quantity of professional development activities. The findings suggest that initiatives in different sectors manifest differently, and have both strengths and weaknesses.

For the universities, Griffiths et al. (2013) indicate that time issues, due to heavy administrative and teaching loads, hinder the professional learning of university teacher educators. This study disagrees with this opinion. The study has identified that the university teacher educators in Shanghai were provided with a relatively appropriate workload, flexible working time, and less administration tasks. However, as much

literature describes (e.g. Cochran-Smith, 2005; Yogeve and Yogeve, 2006; Griffiths et al., 2010; Willemse and Boei, 2013), university teacher educators are provided with opportunities in relation to a wide range of both teaching and research in order to help their transition from school teachers to teacher educators or researchers in higher education. This study highlights that the researcher-oriented activities are a dominant part of the support for university teacher educators, making university teacher educators confused about how to properly balance teaching and research. As some participants believed that teacher education also involves a moral dimension (Day, 2004), they took responsibility for teaching quality as well. Therefore, a recommendation for good practice has to be made in order that the universities may recognise the roles and responsibilities of the teacher educators, so that appropriate support can be properly provided.

Another positive support that has been identified by the study is that mentoring systems have been stably set-up in the universities. Some research (e.g. Loughran and Berry, 2005; Timmerman, 2009; Lunenberg et al., 2007) considers teacher educators to be role models for school teachers. In the same way, Griffiths et al. (2010) believe that role models are helpful for teacher educators, and that positive research mentoring practice benefits the formation of teacher educators' identity and transition from school to university as a researcher. This study is in line with this perspective. In Shanghai, senior teacher educators and expert teacher educators are normally assigned as mentors to support junior teacher educators, especially novices, in both teaching and research. As Davey and Ham (2010) describe, this type of collaborative enquiry resolves teacher educators' questions and dilemmas about their practice. In addition, the existing policy has also been identified by the participants as being too narrow in order to support the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. For example, the *Shanghai Municipal University Teacher Training Programme* is not for all university teachers and has less relevance for teacher educators. A recommendation for regional and institutional policy and practice is therefore to provide tailored training programmes, such as induction for teacher educators, whatever the type of institution, recognising the particular needs of teacher educators at different stages.

The positive results on the college-based teacher educators suggest that the colleges provided regular teaching study activities and training or lectures which were practical, as they related to the field of educational practice. At the same time, the organisers took account of the teacher educators' working agenda, so the participants felt that these

activities were helpful for their professional development. However, an ethical issue has been identified by the college participants, which is that the colleges took up their afternoon break time. This involves both human rights issues and issues in relation to teacher educators' health and well-being that have been discussed by Swennen et al. (2009). Thus, the college should arrange other time to avoid taking staff rest time and should fully respect staff rights, well-being and health. Another negative finding is that the college-based (also the school-based) teacher educators lack time to carry out professional development activities, which has already emerged as an important factor and thus was preventing teacher educators from developing professional identity (as in Murray et al., 2008a; Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou, 2013). The examples given in this study suggest that this can result from an over-full workload and lack of opportunity to study or take part in other professional development activities. In other examples, professional development activity had to be put on hold while teaching or management loads were particularly heavy. A recommendation for institutional policy and practice is therefore to provide a balanced workload, dedicated professional development time, and institutional support.

The results suggest that the school-based teacher educators were supported by practice-oriented professional activities, in which they were given more opportunities to get involved in teaching demonstration, teaching observation, experience shared with school teachers, etc. Such activities are related to collective learning, collaborative learning (MacPhail et al., 2014; Davey and Ham, 2010), and critical reflection (as in Burnett and Lingam, 2007; Chitpin, 2010) which all enable growth and change for teacher educators (Karagiorgi and Nicolaidou, 2013). Another main support offered by the school-based institutions is the academic exchanges between districts, which are often provided for the teacher educators. This enables the teacher educators to share stories with peers from the other teacher training schools. Recent studies in the field of peer study underline the strong impact of learning from interaction and collaboration (Schuck, 2008; Barak et al., 2010). However, the negative points shown in the results are about an overloaded agenda, as discussed above in the college section, which can result in a lack of opportunities to carry out the formal studies that have been identified as a dominant desire for professional development. So, again, to solve the time issue, a recommendation for institutional policy and practice is to provide a balanced workload; and for the formal study issue, funding, dedicated time, and institutional support for teacher educators are needed.

This study confirms that many people, including institutional leaders, experienced experts, mentors, student teachers, school teachers and other stakeholders, play important roles in the professional development of teacher educators. This provides a fresh insight into the relationship between human resources and the professional development of teacher educators. To a large extent, the teacher educators interacted with others through peer feedback and the sharing of professional learning experiences from an agent (e.g. experts, student teachers, school teachers, colleagues) regarding aspects of their performance or understanding (Hattie and Timperley, 2007). These authors indicate that feedback can increase effort, motivation, or engagement to solve the problems identified, and/or it can increase cue searching and task processes that lead to greater understanding. This study has identified this happening. However, there is a cultural influence on feedback, in that some ‘agents’ do not like to play a critical role in peer feedback (Chen, 2013), and this prevents effective interaction.

An interesting finding is that the school-based teacher educators felt their institutional leaders had more influence on their professional development than did teacher educators in higher education. This is probably impacted by cultural influences and performance appraisal approaches. In contrast to the performance appraisal committee approach in higher education (both the university-based and college-based institutions), the leader judgement approach in the school-based institution seems bureaucratic and easily leads to abuse of power (Liu, 2014). This is negative and creates stressed interpersonal relationships and unfair competition environments. A recommendation for institutional policy and practice is to build a democratic and equal performance system in the school-based institutions, and that the university model may be used as an example.

In summary, in terms of the support provided to teacher educators, this study provides three sorts of contribution. Firstly, this study adopts the categories of ‘physical support’ and ‘non-physical support’ to distinguish between the types of available support for the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai, which helps to explain its complexity and diversity. Secondly, this study looks into the differences of the support that is provided by the universities, colleges and teacher training schools in Shanghai. Thirdly, this study suggests support through human resources as an important factor that has a strong impact on teacher educators, both positively and negatively.

7.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter discusses the results presented in Chapters 5–6 in relation to the two research questions, with links back to the literature reviewed in Chapter 3. The findings include the professional characteristics and professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai.

Professional characteristics:

- a. The teacher educators in Shanghai have been identified as an attractive group, in which teacher educators had a strong willingness to remain.
- b. Each teacher educator in Shanghai had one of the seven roles (teaching; research; management; teaching and research; teaching and management; research and management; and teaching, research and management) with the three primary roles model (teaching, research and management; see Figure 5.1, p.114). The teacher educators in different institutional settings had various emphases on teacher education. For example, the university-based teacher educators focused more on research; the college-based teacher educators focused more on teaching, and the school-based teacher educators focused more on a triple role: teaching, research and management.
- c. Social status and a stable position were the two most dominant reasons for Shanghai's teacher educators to become involved in teacher education.
- d. The university and college teacher educators normally entered teacher education through the graduate pathway while school based teacher educators entered through the school teacher pathway. Both pathways resulted in many transitional issues, regardless of the type of teacher educator.
- e. The desired knowledge and competences of teacher educators in Shanghai were deeper and broader than those of teachers.
- f. The school-based teacher educators had a higher level of professional commitment and loyalty than college-based and university-based teacher educators, although the level in Shanghai was generally high.

Professional development:

- a. The professional development of the university-based teacher educators was more based on attitudes and beliefs in academic research whilst that of the college and the school-based educators more on knowledge and competences in solving issues in practice.
- b. The university-based teacher educators preferred research-oriented and self-led approaches to professional development, the college-based preferred teaching-oriented peer interaction, whilst the school-based preferred practice-oriented PD activities.
- c. Although Shanghai's teacher educators were provided with satisfactory 'physical support', for their professional development, the non-physical support did not seem sufficient. The participants in the colleges and the teacher training schools were still challenged by workload and time issues.
- d. Human resources (e.g. experts, colleagues, students) had a strong impact on the professional development of the teacher educators.

The roles and responsibilities of Shanghai's teacher educators and their related knowledge and competencies, career pathways and career motivations, depended on the different organisational cultures, which were affected by the national and regional policy directions. For example, the introduction to the Curriculum Standards for Teacher Education in China, (See p. 36) emphasises student teachers' school experience, which requires university teacher educators to redefine their roles and knowledge and competencies initial teacher education. At the same time, the professional development of teacher educators in different types of institutions in Shanghai varied and was also subject to the organisational cultures that the teacher educators worked in, and to policy directions. For example, the introduction to the shadowing teacher and head teacher programme (See p. 32) gave more emphasis on expert resources and learning from experiences worldwide, which cultivated school-based 'seed' teacher educators to influence and enhance the existing teaching workforce.

The next and final chapter, Chapter 8, explains the wider implications and the limitations of this study. Suggestions for improvements and directions for future research are also outlined.

Chapter 8 Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This study set out to explore the professional identities of teacher educators in Shanghai, and the responses indicated a greater emphasis on teacher educators' professional roles and responsibilities, career motivations, pathways, knowledge and competencies, professional commitment and loyalty, and professional attraction and retention. This study has also sought to understand how teacher educators' professional development takes place in Shanghai. The general theoretical literature on this subject and the specific literature on Shanghai are inconclusive in regard to questions about the professional roles and responsibilities, and professional development, of teacher educators. This study has sought to answer these two questions:

- (a) *What are the professional identities of teacher educators in Shanghai?*
- (b) *What are the opportunities and challenges for the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai?*

This concluding chapter provides a summary of the key findings from the analysis presented in this thesis and discusses knowledge and policy implications in relation to the professional roles, responsibilities and professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. In addition, the theoretical and methodological limitations of this study and some points for further research are described at the end of this chapter.

8.2 Key Findings

This study was based on a conceptual framework related to the three important areas (i.e. policy change; identity, roles and responsibilities; organisational culture, discussed in Chapter 3, See p.50) that significantly impact on the professional development of teacher educators. According to Titmuss (1974), policy can change situations, systems, professional practice and behaviour. At the same time, the teacher educators with different

roles and responsibilities (Mayer, 1999; Castells, 2011; Day et al., 2007) within the organisational culture (Schein, 2010) make sense of, and respond to, this change differently. Therefore, the three areas (policy change; identity, roles and responsibilities; organisational culture) are interrelated and interdependent with respect to professional development of teacher educators. This study utilised a pragmatic worldview with a convergent parallel mixed-methods design in which an online survey with 252 valid responses, 15 teacher educator interviews, and 3 policy expert interviews were conducted, of which two were used (See Chapter 4, p.77). This study has also examined national and Shanghai's policy documents relating to teacher education, especially the policy documents that focus on the professional development of teacher educators (See Chapter 2, p.9). This has enabled the researcher to draw from rich range of data.

The main empirical findings have been summarised within the relevant chapters (Chapters 5–6). The results regarding the roles and responsibilities of teacher educators in Shanghai and its related areas, such as career routes and motivations, professional commitment and loyalty, and professional attraction and retention were presented in Chapter 5 (See p.125). The results regarding the opportunities and challenges of the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai were presented in Chapter 6 (See p.129). This section synthesises the key empirical findings to answer the study's two research questions and considers their meaning and implications:

- a. The roles and responsibilities of Shanghai's teacher educators and their related knowledge and competencies, career pathways and career motivations, depend on the different organisational cultures, which are affected by the national and regional policy directions.
- b. The teacher educators in Shanghai have been identified as an attractive professional group, in which the professionals show strong commitment, loyalty and willingness to remain.
- c. Teacher educators in Shanghai make strong demands on, reasons for, and approaches to, professional development, which manifest diversely and are highly consistent with their different professional roles and responsibilities, policy directions and organisational cultures.
- d. Human resources (i.e. experts, mentors, colleagues, institutional leaders, school teachers and students) have a strong impact on the professional development of teacher educators.

8.2.1 The first research question: what are the professional identities of teacher educators in Shanghai?

As described previously, from the study's findings it became clear that 'identity' is often misunderstood as 'roles and responsibilities' in the Chinese context. The literature suggests that teacher educators from Shanghai are not alone in using the terms identity, role and responsibility inter-changeably (Kang, 2012). Therefore, the findings of this study indicate more about teacher educators' roles and responsibilities and less about their identity.

As described in Chapter 2 and discussed in Chapter 7, the two policymakers gave a rich and detailed background to the policy changes in China that have impacted on teacher educators who work in different institutional settings. The interview data identified that Chinese teacher education has changed from 'teacher preparation' to 'teacher education', and from 'closed' to 'open'; as well as from 'separate' to 'integrated' (See pp.42-44). To respond to these changes, teacher educators are requested to redefine and reconstruct their identity, role and responsibilities. This is a challenging task that requires appropriate support and challenge for teacher educators.

This study has developed a three primary roles (teaching; research; and management) model of Shanghai's teacher educators (See Figure 5.1, p.114). This model consists of three categories (single, dual and triple) covering seven roles (i.e. teaching; research; management; teaching and research; teaching and management; research and management; and teaching, research and management). This model differs from the five roles model of Swennan et al. (2010). In my model, it is evident that teacher educators worked in different institutional settings, with various emphases on teacher education subject to the organisational cultures affected by national and regional policy directions. For example, the university-based teacher educators focused more on research; the college-based teacher educators focused more on teaching, and the school-based teacher educators focused more on a triple role: teaching, research and management. The model of the three primary roles of teacher educators in Shanghai developed in this thesis has provided a clear picture of Shanghai's teacher education, which contributes to developing a deeper understanding of the identity, roles and responsibilities of Shanghai's teacher educators and the potential implications of the different understandings in different institutions. This new knowledge also makes a contribution to the international debate about professional identities among teacher educators (Livingston, 2014; Davey, 2013; Thomas and Beauchamp, 2011;

Swennen et al., 2008; Beijgaard et al., 2004; Sutherland et al., 2010).

To gain a better understanding of identity, roles and responsibilities of teacher educators in different institutions in Shanghai, a number of related areas have been investigated in this study, and some of them have been identified as new directions and contribute to furthering knowledge in the field. For example, firstly, in line with the findings of European Commission (2013) which indicate that in general some teacher educators do not recognise themselves as teacher educators, this study provides specific findings that a few teacher educators in initial teacher education (especially the university teachers and researchers in Shanghai) did not recognise themselves as teacher educators (See Chapter 5, p.114). This contributes to understanding teacher educator's identity, roles and responsibilities in Shanghai's context. Secondly, in line with some European countries (Murray, 2008; van Velzen et al., 2010; Griffiths et al., 2013), in Shanghai, teacher educators' dual routes (graduate and school teacher routes) have been identified as an issue of transition from a graduate to a pre-service teacher educator and from a school teacher to an in-service teacher educator (See p.173). Thirdly, social status and a stable position were identified as the two dominant reasons for Shanghai's teacher educators (especially for the college-based teacher educators) to become involved in teacher education (See p.115). Section 7.3 of this thesis details the reasons given by Professor Gu who indicates the joint effect of a clear national policy on teacher education (See p. 45) and societal culture (See p. 46). For example, teaching profession is seen as a respected occupation and the government places teacher education as one of the most important national strategies for a powerful country. Fourthly, there is evidence that the school-based teacher educators had a higher level of professional commitment and loyalty than college-based and university-based teacher educators, although the level in Shanghai was generally high (See p.122). In contrast with Croswell's (2006) model, this study signals that teacher educators' commitment and loyalty is not subject to age and experience, but may depend on gender and education (See p. 177), and that teacher educators in different types of institutions in Shanghai had different levels of commitment and loyalty. This is a conceptual contribution which nuances the analysis in theories of organisational culture which informed responses coming from different types of education and teacher education institutions in Shanghai. Finally, although a number of challenges have been identified in this study, such as transition difficulties for both pre-service and in-service teacher educators, teacher educators in Shanghai have been identified as an attractive professional group, in which the professionals had a strong willingness to stay (see p. 125). Section 7.5 of this thesis

discusses in detail the responses that evidence this strong willingness (See p. 175).

8.2.2 The second research question: what are the opportunities and challenges for the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai?

Chapter 2 reviewed national and regional policies and discussed perspectives from the two policymakers in relation to the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai (See p. 9). With the findings from the teacher educator survey, and the interviews with teacher educators, this study has uncovered a number of previously unknown aspects in relation to the opportunities and challenges for the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai.

Opportunities

In Chapter 2, the two policymakers gave evidence that the Chinese Central Government and Chinese people have placed more emphasis on education and teacher education (See p. 45). Financial investment programmes (See p. 45) and the published set of national professional standards (See p. 45) have been identified as providing a sound foundation for the professional learning of both school teachers and teacher educators. The recent trend of teacher education changes has given the clear message that Chinese teacher education is moving towards a diverse system, with more emphasis on professionalism (See p. 53). These policy changes, such as the *National Teacher Training Programme* (See p. 28), introduction of shadowing head teachers and teachers (See p. 32), and Master level teacher provision (See p.43), have had an impact on pushing the professional development of teacher educators forward. Therefore, strong policy underpinning is making difference in practice, explicit in relation to teacher educators and their PD.

There is evidence that teacher educators in all sectors in Shanghai have been provided with sufficient ‘physical support’ (See p.155) and that other people (e.g. school teachers, student teachers, expert teacher educators, mentors, see p.164) have strong impacts on the professional development of teacher educators, most of which have been shown to be positive.

This study has shown the differences between different sectors in relation to opportunities of professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. It is evident that the university teacher educators were provided with a relatively appropriate workload, flexible working time, and relatively few administration tasks, and a mentoring system was seen by university teacher educators as an important approach to their professional development (See p. 156). The particular opportunity for the college-based teacher educators is that the colleges provided regular teaching study activities and training or lectures which were practically related to the field of educational practice (See p. 160). For the school-based teacher educators, the evidence has identified that they had close working relationships with school teachers, and experienced learning as they taught and observed (See p. 162).

Challenges

In general, the policies discussed in Chapter 2, regarding examination-oriented education (See p.47), and ‘administrative intervention’ (See p. 46), have been identified as negative factors that hinder the professional development of both school teachers and teacher educators. In practice, a challenge for all teacher educators in Shanghai is that they had transition difficulties when they became teacher educators (See p. 173), and this study has identified that teacher educators in Shanghai felt they were not supported sufficiently by both policymaking and their institutions (See p.155).

To be specific, it is evident that teacher educators in different organisational cultures were challenged differently. This study has identified that there is a lack of strong collaborative organisational culture for the university-based teacher educators (See p. 157) and that they emphasised their research role more, resulting in them placing less emphasis on their teaching role (See p.111). The existing policy has also been identified by the participants as being too narrow in order to support the professional development of the university-based (and also of the college-based as well) teacher educators in Shanghai (See p. 37 and p. 133).

This study has identified that the college-based and school-based teacher educators were challenged by overload, little time for PD opportunities, as well as insufficient funding and professional leadership (See p.133). The mentoring system has not yet been established in the colleges, and the college-based teacher educators, who worked in the independent

institutions, needed more sense of security than the teacher educators in the public institutions. An ethical issue has been identified by the college participants, which is that the colleges took up their afternoon break time.

The peer interaction of teacher educators was limited to them communicating with school teachers, rather than with their colleagues. The school-based teacher educators felt their institutional leaders had more influence on their professional development than teacher educators felt about their leaders in higher education. The leader judgement approach in the school-based institution seems bureaucratic and easily leads to abuse of power.

The opportunities and challenges for the professional development of teacher educators summarised above provide a clearer picture of how teacher educator development takes place in Shanghai and knowledge that contributes to better understanding of teacher educators' professional development in different organisational cultures that are affected by the context of policy change.

8.3 Implications

This section provides the knowledge and practical implications of the syntheses with respect to the research questions and how these may impact on understanding and practice. The key implications are presented before I briefly argue how my findings could influence further application of the knowledge in the field and the relevance of policymaking.

8.3.1 Major Implications

- a. National, regional organisations (e.g. Department of Personnel, Institution of Teaching Research in Shanghai Municipal Education Commission) and the institutions (universities, colleges, and teacher training schools) need to target strategies to support teacher educators with different roles and responsibilities in different organisational cultures.
- b. Policy makers, concerned with raising standards in teacher education, need to address its association with professional identity, commitments and teacher

educators' health and well-being by providing a more effective personnel support structure.

- c. Teacher education institutions need to create a collaborative, interactive and safe organisational culture that provides teacher educators more sense of belonging and no fear as regards survival.
- d. Support for teacher educators given by the institutions should differentiate between the needs of the teacher educators in their different roles in the different types of institutions.
- e. Teacher educators should have more interaction with other human resources (e.g. experts, mentors, colleague, school teachers and students) and take advantage of these resources to support their professional development.

8.3.2 Implications for Policymaking

Reforms of teacher education in China and policy moves have increasingly challenged teacher educators' identity, roles and responsibilities, and professional development. The evidence suggests that teacher educators in different types of institutions responded to these changes variously. Even though the 'physical support' given by the institutions seemed satisfactory, the 'non-physical support', for all types of intuitions, was not sufficient. Some of this was identified as unsuitable for the needs of teacher educators. Therefore, this study suggests that national and regional organisations and policy makers should consider the needs of different types of teacher educators within different organisational cultures before policies are made. It is necessary, as the results suggest, that university-based teacher educators, as well as college-based and school-based teacher educators, should have opportunities to get involved in policy making, so that policies become more comprehensive, inclusive and applicable.

It is evident that the career pathways that teacher educators take into the profession have been seriously challenged in the context of policy change. Teacher educators have felt these tensions and challenges. Therefore, this study strongly calls for national and regional organisations and policy makers to consider the transitional issues for teacher educators who take either a graduate pathway or school teacher pathway. There is a need for increased school experience for university teacher educators, and participation in formal

studies for school-based teacher educators. These issues could be resolved by the 'programmes' route (e.g. an induction programme for the university-based teacher educators, and doctoral programmes for the school-based teacher educators). Specifically, a deliberate selection of teacher educator candidates is needed.

This study has identified management issues in the model of the three primary roles, as in some cases management tasks have occupied the teacher educators' working time and their time for professional learning, and this has had a negative impact on their professional development. So, the institutions should recognise the roles and responsibilities of teacher educators, and some of those who are interested in developing their management skills could take on this role. This will allow the professional identity of teacher educators to be re-focused and will increase the level of professional commitment.

The results show that teacher educators' professional development needs, and the support they received, varied. Therefore, this study suggests that support for teacher educators given by the institutions should differentiate the needs of the teacher educators in their different roles in the different types of institutions. This may be done by understanding and recognising their learning needs: for example, by providing the university-based teacher educators with more opportunities of domestic and international exchange and visits; providing the college-based teacher educators with more connection to nurseries; and providing the school-based teacher educators with more opportunities to get involved in formal studies.

The evidence has identified that human resources in teacher education had significant impact on the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai, both positively and negatively. Within the category of human resources, mentoring, experienced role models, peer collaboration and student feedback were identified as helpful for teacher educators. Therefore, teacher education institutions should effectively integrate such resources in order to support the professional development of teacher educators. Again, the institutions also need to avoid the abuse of power which negatively affects organisational culture. For example, a committee with a wide range of members (such as institutional leader, subject expert, teacher educator representative, and worker union representative) for teacher educator performance appraisals and assessment should be established.

8.3.3 Implications for Practice

Universities

This study has confirmed that a few of the university teacher educators who took the role of teaching a subject, or the sole role of researcher, did not identify themselves as teacher educators. This reflects the finding that those teacher educators may lack a feeling of belonging to the profession. The results also suggest that these teacher educators had relatively low professional commitment. It is suggested that the university-based institutions should provide those teacher educators with more opportunities, such as teaching observation and opportunities of giving lectures to school teachers, so that they can get involved in, and make more sense of, being a teacher or a researcher in teacher education.

The university-based institutions need to address the following two dominant issues: firstly, by balancing the relationship between teaching and research, and reclassifying the roles of the university teacher educators; this should positively correlate with performance assessment and promotion. Secondly, by creating a positive organisational culture that gives a sense of security and eliminates the fear of ‘cut-throat competition’ between the university teacher educators and also individually, in relation to performance appraisals, and of losing their tenure, academic, positions, and current pay level (See p. 157), in order to create a collaborative and supportive professional learning environment and to provide opportunities and support for experience sharing. A reward/incentive route for collaborative work in research teams may be a way to solve this issue.

Colleges

For the college-based (and school-based) institutions, the evidence has identified that there were barriers that constrained the professional development of teacher educators, such as workload, time and salary. This study suggests that professional development time for college teacher educators could be ring-fenced to ensure that the time available for PD is not reduced. To ensure the time for, and the quality of, the professional development of

teacher educators, a contract is needed, and a credit bank should be set up for tracking the professional growth of the teacher educators. Another approach to their professional development is to encourage and provide support for the college-based (and school-based) teacher educators to get involved in formal studies, such as, Ed.D. and Ph.D. The study also identified secondments in XC as a good way for college teacher educators to become familiar with, and practice in, schools. This method could be applied in all the colleges.

Teacher training schools

As argued in Chapter 2, initial teacher education and pre-service teacher education in China is becoming integrated (See p. 44), this implies that teacher educators have to prepare themselves to respond to these changes. They need to have knowledge and competences for supporting both student teachers and school teachers. In this case, the teacher education institutions also need to be ready. Thus, this study suggests that the teacher training schools may be merged into the university-based and the college-based institutions and that all teacher educators should become teachers based on higher education which should provide both initial teacher education and in-service teacher education.

It is noted that there was some fear in the school-based institutions in relation to performance appraisals that were conducted by the institutional leader meeting. The evidence has identified that this ‘bureaucratic’ process has had a negative impact on the teacher educators’ professional development, and establishment of a positive organisational culture. So, this study suggests that the school-based institutions may draw on the initiatives of the universities in establishing a performance evaluation committee that consists of different parties of representatives.

The evidence shows that some of the most regular and effective initiatives and support for professional development were present in each type of institution for all teacher educators; for example, mentoring in the university-based institutions which emphasises the value of knowledge from experience, and teaching study activities in the college-based institutions that focus on peer interaction and experience sharing as well as interaction between teaching researchers. Apart from these, there were school teachers in the school-based institutions, which emphasises practice-oriented approaches. These different models may

be applied in other institutions with consideration of some adjustments to fit the organisational culture. For example, the college-based and school-based institutions may take on the mentoring system that was successfully practised in the university-based institutions while the university-based institutions may take on teaching study activities from the college-based institutions.

8.4 Research Limitations

8.4.1 Theoretical limitations

This study uses a pragmatic approach to research, in that the starting point is data (Bogdan and Biklen, 1997). An early problem identified in the literature was the conflation of identity with role (Castells, 2011; Mayer, 1999; Day et al., 2007; Kang, 2012; Li, 2012). This problem was avoided pragmatically by refocusing the research on the latter, although the first research question was on the former (See p.5). This thesis, as a work of social science, does not claim to contribute to the complete debate on the problematic relationship between epistemology and ontology (Christiansen et al., 1999; Morgan, 2007). In other words, further research would be needed to define the difference between what teacher educators in Shanghai report as their role and what this is in reality, and to tease out, in these reports, the strands of self-understanding that may be considered as relating more to roles from those relating more to identities. What this study does contribute to theoretical knowledge, however, is a more nuanced understanding in terms of a model of teacher educators' roles (See Figure 5.1, p.114); of the different impact of organisational culture on teacher educators depending on their institutional type; and of their expressed professional commitment and loyalty.

8.4.2 Methodological limitations

The research sample was limited to Shanghai's teacher educators, rather than those in China or a larger region, and the number of cases in the online survey could have been

larger to add greater significance to the findings. For example, there were only 60 respondents from the college-based institutions. Therefore, this may have constrained the credibility of the study.

Although the study has been supported by many teacher educators and policymakers, which allowed me to obtain a large amount of primary data, I have some reservations regarding the research methods, i.e. interviews and the survey. In terms of the interviews, some research questions could not be inquired into deeply, as the interviews were sometimes postponed, interrupted, or disturbed. Some difficulties in interviews regarding researcher access to teacher educator's personal perspectives may have been due to organisational constraints. Also, some of the participants were not willing to be re-visited, which may have meant that some of the data was insufficient. In terms of the online survey, even though the questionnaire was semi-structured, some respondents failed to answer the open questions, so this may have caused some data to be missed and, to a certain extent, this may have diluted some of the results of the questionnaire.

8.5 Further Research

There are some points to be researched further in relation to the professional identities and professional development of teacher educators. As described above, the data did not provide sufficient information on the identity of teacher educators, so there is a need to explore teacher educators' identities more fully in the Chinese context in order to gain a better understanding of meaning of identity, roles and responsibilities.

In terms of research depth and width, in the future, a single study could be conducted according to each different topic, such as: career motivations and entry routes; and professional development needs, approaches, outcomes, and issues. Further research should also be conducted on the different institutional settings and international and regional comparative studies should also be conducted in the future.

In terms of research methods, future research could enlarge the research sample, to achieve a better outcome, and conduct site observations on the learning behaviours of teacher

educators. Future research could also investigate the real state and expressed needs of teacher educators through appropriate planning and in-depth interviews.

8.6 Chapter Summary

This study has explored the roles, responsibilities and the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. A strong policy underpinning that was analysed in Chapter 2 has made some significant differences in terms of professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. However, the issues raised concerning understanding the differentiated needs of teacher educators apply internationally. This study is able to provide data on the different professional roles and responsibilities of teacher educators in different institutional, cultural, and policy contexts, which enriches the understanding of their professional characteristics and professional development in different organisational cultures. Meanwhile, because very little is known about teacher education and the professional characteristics and professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai, another contribution of this study is that it sets out the context of teacher education and the occupation of teacher educators in Shanghai, as well as a historical trajectory of the development of teacher education in Shanghai.

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Glossary

Base School/Professional Development School

‘Base school’ is another name for a ‘Professional Development School’ (PDS) in Shanghai, but it is slightly different from the PDS in the United States which are seen as spaces where prospective teacher and teacher mentor learning becomes (a) experimental; (b) grounded in teachers’ questions; (c) collaborative; (d) connected to and derived from teachers’ work with their students; and (e) sustained, intensive, and connected to other aspects of school change (Darling-Hammond, 1998). A base school in Shanghai is a school that not only undertakes regular school education but also takes responsibility for student teachers’ placements and probationer teachers’ induction.

Comprehensive University

A comprehensive university is an institution of higher education and research that grants academic degrees in a variety of disciplines and provides both undergraduate education and postgraduate education. Generally, a comprehensive university has a number of colleges in the humanities and social sciences, and/or the natural sciences. According to the Ministry of Education (2012b), in China’s current university discipline classification there are 12 discipline categories: philosophy, economics, law, education, literature, history, science, engineering, agronomy, medicine, management and art. It is generally recognised that a comprehensive university must have more than 6 of these (Wu, 2010).

Hukou (Household Status)

A *hukou* is a record in the system of registration of residential status required by law in Mainland China. The system itself is more properly called *hujū*, and has origins in ancient China. A household registration record officially identifies a person as a resident of an area and includes identifying information such as name, parents, spouse, and date of birth. A *hukou* can also mean a family register, since the household registration record is issued per family, and usually includes the births, deaths, marriages, divorces, and moves of all members of the family. There were separate urban and rural registers until 31 July, 2014,

when the state council removed the distinction between urban and rural residents except for in major cities (e.g. Beijing, Shanghai) (State Council, 2014).

Shanghai has its own *hukou* (Permanent Residential Status) system. To qualify as a permanent resident, an applicant must have held a temporary residence card and contributed to the city's social security system for at least seven years. Applicants must also be taxpayers, have vocational qualifications, a good credit history and no criminal record. Shanghai's latest reform of its *hukou* system in 2013 was the fourth adjustment since 1994 (Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, 2013c). Shanghai has launched a new points-based residency permit system, in an effort to speed up the reformation of the household registration system, which is being pushed by the central government. For outsiders living in Shanghai, holding a residency permit means their children can go to the same schools as other citizens and enjoy many of the same welfare benefits.

Lesson Preparation Group

A small teacher learning group in which teachers in a school, in the same grade and subject, work together on lesson preparation.

Project 211 University

Project 211 is a project for national key universities and colleges initiated in 1995 by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, with the intent of raising the research standards of high-level universities and cultivating strategies for socio-economic development. During the first phase of the project, from 1996 to 2000, approximately US \$2.2 billion was distributed (Li, 2004). China today has more than 118 institutions of higher education (about 6%) designated as 211 Project institutions for having met certain scientific, technical, and human resources standards and offering advanced degree programmes). The name for the project comes from an abbreviation of the 21st century and 100 (the approximate number of participating universities).

Project 985 University

Project 985 is a project that was first announced by CPC General Secretary and Chinese President, Jiang Zemin, at the 100th anniversary of Peking University on May 4, 1998 to promote the development and reputation of the Chinese higher education system. It is named after the date of the announcement, May 1998, or 98/5, according to the Chinese date format. The project involves both national and local governments allocating large amounts of funding to certain universities in order to build new research centres, improve facilities, hold international conferences, attract world-renowned faculty members and visiting scholars, and to help Chinese faculty members attend conferences abroad (World Education News and Reviews, 2006).

Normal School/ Normal College/Normal University

A (secondary) normal school is a school created to train high school graduates to be teachers. Its purpose is to establish teaching standards or norms, hence its name. Most such schools are now called teachers' colleges. 'Normal' as a terminology has been preserved in the official translations of such schools in China since the early 20th century, Beijing Normal University (BNU) being the first. A Chinese normal university is usually controlled by the national or provincial government. BNU, along with East China Normal University, Central China Normal University, Northeast Normal University, Southwest University, and Shaanxi Normal University, are the national normal universities affiliated to the Ministry of Education in mainland China.

Secondment

Secondment is the temporary transfer of an official or worker to another position or employment. This is a popular way to send special skills to other places or jobs, entrusting the worker with specific duties in a temporary job without changing the original administrative relationship to the different levels of government. Most selected workers go back to their original workplaces when they have completed the secondment while a few candidates stay and are divorced from their original workplaces or work in the other institutions. Secondment is not very popular in education in China. Some senior teachers in the eastern cities in China are entrusted to support school education in western China or in

poverty-stricken areas: they are not divorced from their schools, but act as the school teachers for those schools. Some institutions draw on this as a way to enhance the professional development of their members of staff practising in field. For example, in Shanghai Xingjian College, the college teachers are frequently allocated to the nurseries as nursery teachers to work with the staff and the children in the nurseries.

Special Grade Teacher

‘Special Grade Teacher’ is a title for the recognition of expert school teachers who demonstrate outstanding teaching skills in specific subjects, and act as mentors to their colleagues on teaching, research and ethical matters (Ministry of Education, 1993). Normally Special Grade Teachers should have a senior title and have made an outstanding contribution to and have had a strong impact on their areas.

Teaching Researcher

A senior teacher who works in a teacher training school in a specific subject, and is responsible for organising Teaching Research Group activities around the district, and for guiding school teachers and demonstrating teaching to them.

Teaching Research Group

A group on teaching research for teachers in a school within the same subject but across all the grades.

Appendices



Appendix A: Plain Language Statement (Questionnaire)

Researcher: Chao Qiu (Ph.D. Candidate, School of Education, University of Glasgow)

Supervisors: Professor Kay Livingston and Dr Moira Hulme

Project Title: The Professional Development of teacher educators in Shanghai

You are being invited to take part in a doctoral study. Before you decide whether or not to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take the time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Do not hesitate to ask me if there is anything that you are unclear of, or if you would like more information. Participation is voluntary and if you do decide to take part, you may withdraw at any time without giving a reason why.

The aim of this study is to explore the experiences, understandings, and beliefs that guide the professional learning and practices of teacher educators in different institutional settings.

You have been selected to participate in this study based on your work experience and the institution where you work. I am inviting people who work as teacher educators for either pre-service teacher education or in-service teacher education, to participate in this study.

If you decide to take part in the study, I will request to visit you and ask you to fill out a 30 question questionnaire. Participation in the questionnaire will require about 20 minutes of your time. It's quite straightforward to complete the questionnaire, because most questions are multiple-choice with very few written answers being required. In most cases you only have to tick one box, although sometimes you will need to tick more. The questionnaire will be carried out anonymously.

I intend to protect your anonymity and the confidentiality of your responses to the fullest possible extent, within the limits of the law. I will remove any references to personal information that might allow someone to guess your identity. In addition, paper documents will be shredded and electronic files will be deleted in December 2018, once the project is concluded. The outcomes of the research will be published in professional journals and as a Ph.D. thesis. You will not be identifiable in these publications.

The project has been reviewed by the College of Social Sciences Ethics Committee at the University of Glasgow.

Should you require any further information, or have any concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me via email address: c.qiu.1@research.gla.ac.uk.

If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of the project, please contact the College of Social Science Ethics Officer by contacting Professor John McKernan at John.McKernan@glasgow.ac.uk.

Appendix B: Plain Language Statement (Teacher Educators Interviews)

Researcher: Chao Qiu (Ph.D. Candidate, School of Education, University of Glasgow)

Supervisors: Professor Kay Livingston and Dr Moira Hulme

Project Title: The Professional Development of teacher educators in Shanghai

You are being invited to take part in a doctoral study. Before you decide whether or not to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take the time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Do not hesitate to ask me if there is anything that you are unclear of, or if you would like more information. Participation is voluntary and if you do decide to take part, you may withdraw at any time without giving a reason why.

The aim of this study is to explore the experiences, understandings, and beliefs that guide the professional learning and practices of teacher educators in different institutional settings.

You have been selected to participate in this study based on your work experience and the institution where you work. I am inviting people who work as teacher educators for either pre-service teacher education or in-service teacher education, to participate in this study.

If you decide to take part in the study, I will request to visit you to conduct an in-depth interview. Participation in the interview will require about 60 minutes of your time. I will ask you some questions on a one to one basis, regarding the life, work and professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. The research requires your consent to record your voice during the interview. I will ask you to sign a form to confirm this.

I intend to protect your anonymity and the confidentiality of your responses to the fullest possible extent, within the limits of the law. Your name and contact details will be kept in a separate, password-protected computer file from any data that you supply. In the final report, you will be referred to by a pseudonym. I will remove any references to personal information that might allow someone to guess your identity. In addition, paper documents will be shredded and electronic files will be deleted in December 2018, once the project is concluded. The outcomes of the research will be published in professional journals and as a Ph.D. thesis. You will not be identifiable in these publications.

The project has been reviewed by the College of Social Sciences Ethics Committee at the University of Glasgow.

Should you require any further information, or have any concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me via email address: c.qiu.1@research.gla.ac.uk.

If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of the project, please contact the College of Social Science Ethics Officer by contacting Professor John McKernan at John.McKernan@glasgow.ac.uk.

Appendix C: Plain Language Statement (Interviews with Policymakers)

Researcher: Chao Qiu (Ph.D. Candidate, School of Education, University of Glasgow)

Supervisors: Professor Kay Livingston and Dr Moira Hulme

Project Title: The Professional Development of teacher educators in Shanghai

You are being invited to take part in a doctoral study. Before you decide whether or not to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take the time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Do not hesitate to ask me if there is anything that you are unclear of, or if you would like more information. Participation is voluntary and if you do decide to take part, you may withdraw at any time without giving a reason why.

The aim of this study is to explore the experiences, understandings, and beliefs that guide the professional learning and practices of teacher educators in different institutional settings.

You have been selected to participate in this study based on your work experience and the institution where you work. I am inviting people who work as teacher educators for either pre-service teacher education or in-service teacher education, to participate in this study.

If you decide to take part in the study, I will request to visit you to conduct an in-depth interview. Participation in the study will require about 60 minutes of your time. I will ask you some questions on a one to one basis, regarding the life, work and professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. The research requires your consent to record your voice during the interview. I will ask you to sign a form to confirm this.

In the final report, you will be referred to by your real name and you will be identified. The outcomes of the research will be published in professional journals and as a Ph.D. thesis. You will be identifiable in these publications.

The project has been reviewed by the College of Social Sciences Ethics Committee at the University of Glasgow.

Should you require any further information, or have any concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me via email address: c.qiu.1@research.gla.ac.uk.

If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of the project, please contact the College of Social Science Ethics Officer by contacting Professor John McKernan at John.McKernan@glasgow.ac.uk.

Appendix D: Plain Language Statement (Focus groups)

Researcher: Chao Qiu (Ph.D. Candidate, School of Education, University of Glasgow)

Supervisors: Professor Kay Livingston and Dr Moira Hulme

Project Title: The Professional Development of teacher educators in Shanghai

You are being invited to take part in a doctoral study. Before you decide whether or not to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take the time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Do not hesitate to ask me if there is anything that you are unclear of, or if you would like more information. Participation is voluntary and if you do decide to take part, you may withdraw at any time without giving a reason why.

The aim of this study is to explore the experiences, understandings, and beliefs that guide the professional learning and practices of teacher educators in different institutional settings.

You have been selected to participate in this study based on your work experience and the institution where you work. I am inviting people who work as teacher educators for either pre-service teacher education or in-service teacher education, to participate in this study.

If you decide to take part in the study, I will request to visit you and ask you to participate in a focus group. Participation in the focus group will require about 60 minutes of your time. You will discuss some questions with the researcher and other participants as a group. The questions will focus on the work and professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai. The research requires your consent to record your voice during the interview. I will ask you to sign a form to confirm this.

I intend to protect your anonymity and the confidentiality of your responses to the fullest possible extent, within the limits of the law. Your name and contact details will be kept in a separate, password-protected computer file from any data that you supply. In the final report, you will be referred to by a pseudonym. I will remove any references to personal information that might allow someone to guess your identity. In addition, paper documents will be shredded and electronic files will be deleted in December 2018, once the project is concluded. The outcomes of the research will be published in professional journals and as a Ph.D. thesis. You will not be identifiable in these publications.

The project has been reviewed by the College of Social Sciences Ethics Committee at the University of Glasgow.

Should you require any further information, or have any concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me via email address: c.qiu.1@research.gla.ac.uk.

If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of the project, please contact the College of Social Science Ethics Officer by contacting Professor John McKernan at John.McKernan@glasgow.ac.uk.

Appendix E: Consent Form (Focus groups and In-depth interviews)

Researcher: Chao Qiu (Ph.D. Candidate, School of Education, University of Glasgow)

Supervisors: Professor Kay Livingston and Dr Moira Hulme

Project Title: The Professional Development of Teacher Educators in Shanghai

If you agree to participate in this study then please read the following statements and sign your name below to indicate your consent.

I confirm that I have read and understand the Plain Language Statement for participants. I understand the procedures and I have been informed about what to expect.

I agree to participate in this study on the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai.

I understand that my interview will be recorded using an audio recording device and I consent to this.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

I understand that my participation in this study is for the purpose of research, and is in no way an evaluation of me as an individual.

I understand that, although the researcher will be able to identify participants from the interview data, my name will not be used in any publication that arises from the research.

I understand that I can contact the researcher for this project, Chao Qiu, to receive more information and/or a summary of results, using the details below:

Chao Qiu
Ph.D Student
Room 573, St. Andrew's Building
School of Education, University of Glasgow
Glasgow G3 6NH
Email address: c.qiu.1@research.gla.ac.uk

_____ Name of Participant	_____ Date	_____ Signature
_____ Name of Researcher	_____ Date	_____ Signature

Appendix F: Consent Form (Interviews with Policymakers)

Researcher: Chao Qiu (Ph.D. Candidate, School of Education, University of Glasgow)

Supervisors: Professor Kay Livingston and Dr Moira Hulme

Project Title: The Professional Development of Teacher Educators in Shanghai

If you agree to participate in this study then please read the following statements and sign your name below to indicate your consent.

I confirm that I have read and understand the Plain Language Statement for participants. I understand the procedures and I have been informed about what to expect.

I agree to participate in this study on the professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai.

I understand that my interview will be recorded using an audio recording device and I consent to this.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

I understand that my participation in this study is for the purpose of research, and is in no way an evaluation of me as an individual.

I understand that the final report will identify me and my name will be used in reference to the interview in papers or reports arising from the research.

I understand that I can contact the researcher for this project, Chao Qiu, to receive more information and/or a summary of results, using the details below:

Chao Qiu
Ph.D Student
Room 573, St. Andrew's Building
School of Education, University of Glasgow
Glasgow G3 6NH
Email address: c.qiu.1@research.gla.ac.uk

_____ Name of Participant	_____ Date	_____ Signature
_____ Name of Researcher	_____ Date	_____ Signature

Appendix G: Interview Schedule (For Teacher Educators)

Who are you?

- How do you see yourself?

What is the distinctive knowledge and competencies of teacher educators?

- How are teacher educator knowledge and competencies different from those of teachers?
- How could your knowledge and competencies be improved?

In what kinds of professional activities do you participate?

- Do you attend any events in connection with your profession? What do you think about them?
- Can you tell me anything else about the kinds of professional activities that you participate in? What do you think about...?

Approaches to professional development

- What are your approaches to professional development?
- Which types of approach would be most feasible for the professional development of teacher educators generally?

Influencing factors

- Is there a public policy in regard to professional development? What is it?
- What kinds of factors impact on your professional development? Which factors are positive? Which factors are negative?

PD needs

- What do you want in relation to your current professional development?
- Who do you think should provide support for you? How would you address these issues?

What is the relationship between a teacher educator, teachers and the community?

- What would you say is your relationship with the community/teacher educators/teachers? Why?
- Can these relationships be improved in any way?

Anything else...?

Appendix H: Interview Schedule (For Mrs Sun)

Teacher education in Shanghai

Possible prompts:

- What is the current situation regarding teacher education in Shanghai?
- What do you think of the current situation regarding teacher education in Shanghai?
- What are the opportunities and challenges for Shanghai teacher education?

Identities of teacher educators

Possible prompts:

- What are the professional identities of Chinese teacher educators?
- What do you think of the professional identities of Chinese teacher educators?
- What professional qualities should Chinese teacher educators have?

Professional development of teacher educators in Shanghai

Possible prompts:

- What are the critical issues that teacher educators face? How would you address these issues?
- What current policies impact on the professional development of Shanghai teacher educators?
- What are the barriers that you met during the process of implementing policies?
- In your opinion, what approaches would be feasible for the professional development of Shanghai's teacher educators?

Anything else...?

Appendix I: Interview Schedule (For Professor Gu and Professor Zhong)

Teacher education in China

Possible prompts:

- What is the current situation of Chinese teacher education?
- What do you think of the current situation of Chinese teacher education?
- What is the trend toward both Chinese teacher education and teacher education worldwide?
- What are the opportunities and challenges that Chinese teacher education faces?

Identities of Chinese teacher educators

Possible prompts:

- What are the professional identities of Chinese teacher educators?
- What do you think of the professional identities of Chinese teacher educators?
- What professional qualities should Chinese teacher educators have?

Processional development of Chinese teacher educators

Possible prompts:

- What are the critical issues that Chinese teacher educators face? How would you address these issues?
- What current policies impact on the processional development of Chinese teacher educators?
- In your opinion, what approaches would be feasible for the professional development of Chinese teacher educators?

Anything else...?

Appendix J: Themes for Focus Group (For Teacher Educators)

Theme 1: Professional identity

Q1: What are you?

Q2: Please tell me what kinds of knowledge are most useful for you and why?

Q3: Which professional practices are important for you?

Q4: Which communities do you involve with your work?

Q5: How do you view yourself professionally?

Q6: Anything else?

Theme 2: Professional development

Q1: What are your approaches to professional development? Which approaches are more useful? Which approaches are less useful?

Q2: What do you think of the work done by the Government and the institutions to advance PD? What do you do to advance your own PD?

Q3: Are you satisfied with the PD that is given to you? Is there anything that can be done to improve your PD?

Q4: Could you tell me what barriers you have encountered in terms of your PD?

Q5: What are the influencing factors that impact on your professional development?

Q6: What do you currently want in relation to your professional development?

Q7: Anything else?

Anything else...?



Appendix K: Teacher Educator Survey

Foreword

Dear participant:

Thanks a lot for participating in this survey. Before continuing any further, you may wish to take a moment to read the Plain Language Statement. If you do not already have the Plain Language Statement, please feel free to email me, my details are below.

This survey aims to find information about the professional identities and development of teacher educators in Shanghai. This will provide useful evidence for improving the policies of teacher education and the professional development of teacher educators.

Respondents will remain anonymous. All data will only be applied to scientific research. The evidence and ideas that you give will be of great value for this study and for Chinese teacher education. By completing this questionnaire you are consenting to your participation in this research.

Please read each question carefully and tick a box to indicate your answer. In most cases you will only have to tick one box, however, please read the questions carefully as sometimes you will need to tick more than one box. If you have any queries about the questionnaire please do not hesitate to contact Chao Qiu via email: c.qiu.1@research.gla.ac.uk.

Thanks again for your support and co-operation.

*1. Which institution do you work in?

- ☐ ECNU
- ☐ SNU
- ☐ XC
- ☐ TC
- ☐ TTS-C
- ☐ TTS-S

*2. What is your gender?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

*3. How old are you?

- ☐ Under 30
- ☐ 31-40
- ☐ 41-50
- ☐ 50+

*4. What is the highest level of formal education that you have completed?

- ☐ Under university degree
- ☐ University degree
- ☐ Master
- ☐ Ph.D

***5. What subject matter do you teach?**

- ☐ Group1 (Chinese/English/Mathematics)
- ☐ Group2 (General humanistic social science, excluding English and Chinese)
- ☐ Group3 (General natural science, excluding Mathematics)

6. What is your professional title?

- ☐ None
- ☐ Junior
- ☐ Intermediate
- ☐ Senior

***7. How long have you been working as a teacher educator?**

- ☐ 1-5 years
- ☐ 6-10 years
- ☐ 10+ years

***8. Who are you?**

- ☐ I'm a teacher of education in higher education
- ☐ I'm a teacher of a school subject in higher education
- ☐ I'm a teacher of didactics
- ☐ I'm an educational researcher
- ☐ I'm a mentor of student teachers who practice teaching in schools
- ☐ I'm a mentor of serving teachers in schools or teacher training schools
- ☐ I'm a teacher trainer in private sector
- ☐ I'm not actually a teacher educator

***9. What is your work description?**

- ☐ Teaching
- ☐ Research
- ☐ Teaching and research
- ☐ Teaching and management
- ☐ Research and management
- ☐ Teaching, research and management

***10. What are your key reasons for being a teacher educator?**

	Not significant	Less significant	Significant	More significant	Greatly significant
Personal dream	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Social status	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stable position	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Income	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Accidental factors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***11. What pathway did you take to become a teacher educator?**

- ☐ A graduate – a teacher educator
- ☐ A school teacher --a teacher educator
- ☐ Others

***12. In your opinion, what significant knowledge is required of teacher educators which is distinct from what is required of school teachers, or of other teachers in higher education?**

	Not significant	Less significant	Significant	More significant	Greatly significant
The pedagogy of educating teachers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Subject matter content knowledge	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Knowledge of learners	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Practice-based research	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Educational research	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
General knowledge	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***13. In your opinion, what significant competences are required of teacher educators which are distinct from what are required of school teachers, or of other teachers in higher education?**

	Not significant	Less significant	Significant	More significant	Greatly significant
Competence in teaching learners	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Competence in teaching about teaching	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Competence in self-study	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Leadership competences	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Competence in cooperation and communicating with others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***14. How much working time do you spend on teacher education?**

- ☐ Less than 25%
- ☐ 25%-50%
- ☐ 51%-75%
- ☐ 76%-100%

***15. How many points would you give on the attraction of your profession of teacher educator (low to high, 0-100 points)?**

Please type your score:

***16. How significant were the following purposes for your participation in PD?**

	Not significant	Less significant	Significant	More significant	Greatly significant
To solve the issues within practice	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To broaden horizon and improve experience	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To strength the professional status within academic circle	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To meet external standards and requests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***17. To what extent did the following factors support your PD during the last academic session (2012.9-2013.2)?**

	Not significant	Less significant	Significant	More significant	Greatly significant
I was provided appropriate learning facilities and sufficient learning materials	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I was provided enough PD opportunities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The PD activities were helpful for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I undertook appropriated workload, I had time for PD	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My colleagues worked with, and shared ideas with me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***18. During your last academic session (2012.9-2013.2), did you participate in any of the following kinds of professional development (PD) activities, and if so how many times did you participate in each activity?**

	Never	1-2 times	3-5 times	5+ times
Formal studies for advanced academic degrees	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Training courses by different institutions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Domestic and international exchange and visiting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Academic conferences or sporadic seminars and lectures	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Peer studies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mentoring	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Research	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Self-study	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teaching reflection	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

***19. What kind of impact do the following people have on your PD?**

	Not significant	Less significant	Significant	More significant	Greatly significant
Institutional leaders	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Experienced teachers/experts/Supervisors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Colleagues	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Student teachers/school teachers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*** 20. Rate your general experiences of PD, provided in the following approaches:**

	Not useful	Less useful	Useful	More useful	Highly useful
Formal studies for advanced academic degrees	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Training courses by different institutions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Academic conferences or sporadic seminars and lectures	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Domestic and international exchange and visiting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Peer studies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mentoring	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Research	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Self-study	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teaching reflection	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*** 21. How significant to your PD are the following kinds of support provided by your institution?**

	Not significant	Less significant	Significant	More significant	Greatly significant
Build better academic platform	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Increase of PD opportunities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Provision of abundant funds	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Making efficiently incentive policies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Improvement of institutional management system	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix L: Example of Coded Transcript

This appendix comprises part of the coded transcript of the interview conducted with II02. In the transcript certain changes have been made in an effort to protect the anonymity of the interviewee. This was one of the fifteen in-depth interviews conducted throughout the overall process. The initial codes/themes and reflective memos in relation to the text are displayed in the column situated to the right of the transcript. The listed codes/themes and memos demonstrate the style of coding used in the initial data analysis, namely line-by-line coding. During the coding process, I coded the transcript and categorised the codes/themes, at the same time, I wrote memo notes to reflect on the implications of the data. I then compared the qualitative data from the Survey Monkey with the qualitative data from the interviews, and used the memos to support my interpretation.

Transcript: Interview with II 02

Interview time: 6:30-7:30 p.m. 28 March 2013

Gender: Male

Age Group: 41-50

Transcript	Codes/Themes	Memos
<p><i>How do you go about your own professional development?</i></p> <p>I mainly depend on self-directed study; sometimes I exchange ideas with experts and school teachers, especially experienced head teachers and school teachers. In addition, I think that visits and exchanges are important, such as short-term visits and exchanges at home, and studies overseas.</p>	<p>a. Self-study</p> <p>b. Peer interaction</p> <p>c. Academic visits and exchanges (also as peer interaction)</p>	<p>He seems to have two strategies in order to approach his PD. On the one hand, he prefers one-direction learning which is carried out by the learner himself through inquiry and reflection. On the other hand, he learns knowledge through mutual communication with the experienced informants who provide tacit knowledge.</p> <p>This implies that experienced head teachers and school teachers, and the peers inside or/and outside of the institution he works in are crucial human resources for his PD.</p> <p>This also means the PD opportunities for teacher educators in the university-based institutions are not restricted to the space either inside or outside of the institutions they work in.</p>

Continued

Transcript	Codes/Themes	Memos
<p><i>What difficulties do you encounter in the course of your PD?</i></p> <p>Time. The bureaucracy has taken so much time from me. So I have to study after 10 p.m. at night, go to bed after 2.30 a.m., and then get up at 6 a.m. So I sleep fewer than 5 hours per night. Despite this, at weekends I am still very busy because I have so many training courses to do.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Time (which potentially bring about the following two themes) b. Health and well-being 	<p>This appears to be universal as it appears in literature on teacher educators in other countries too. However, his situation reflects some problems that the teacher educators in the other countries might not undergo at all. Firstly, he lacks structured time and opportunities for his PD. He has to study at home during his off-job time. Secondly, his sleeping time has been taken over which potentially impacts on his health and wellbeing. Thirdly, due to a lack of time, his approach to PD was limited to self-study, which did not appear to be sufficient for a professional.</p>
<p><i>Can you talk about your identity?</i></p> <p>I am in charge of teacher training, which is divided into four parts. <u>Firstly</u>, I teach general educational theory for school teachers, for example in the large scale training projects organised by SMEC or the Ministry of Education. <u>Secondly</u>, I train key school teachers and head teachers, focusing on research methods, how to conduct research projects and report the results. <u>Thirdly</u>, I train middle ranking teachers who have had some experience of teaching but did not reach high levels. <u>Fourthly</u>, I provide systematic training, covering three types of training: degree-level; postgraduate, like Masters and doctorates; and credits, to count towards the 36 credits which school teachers must complete every five years.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Trainer of general school teachers b. Research trainer of key teachers c. Trainer of middle career teachers d. Trainer of student teachers and school teachers who take formal studies 	<p>He was asked to talk about his identity as a teacher educator, but he gave an answer which discussed his roles and responsibilities. This suggests that he might not be able to distinguish between identity and roles and responsibilities.</p> <p>His roles seem to centre on the training of all types of teachers, regardless of pre-service or in service; formal studies or informal studies.</p> <p>In terms of the areas he mainly provides to the trainees, he appears confident in his teaching of research skills to the teachers. This might be a reason why a university teacher educator was asked to train school teachers' research skills.</p>

Appendix M: Interview Transcripts

Interview with Professor Gu

Interview time: 9.00–10.15 a.m. 21 March 2013

Q: Hi, Professor Gu, I would like to ask you some questions in relation to Chinese teacher education. First of all, can you give me a developmental history of Chinese teacher education?

Gu: Yes. China has always attached great importance to education. Three thousand years ago, a sound educational system was established in China. However, there were no specialised institutions for teacher training at this time. Teacher training was carried out by officials or experienced teachers. In old-style private schools, teachers regularly discussed Chinese classical works with their students while the academies, which taught higher-grade students, used learned intellectuals to instruct their students. In modern times, Chinese people began to learn from the western educational system and initially put Comenius's system of class-training began to be set up. At the end of the nineteenth century, China established the first “normal” school [an institution to train future teachers in the “norms” of school education] in Shanghai. In 1898, the Peking Imperial University was established. A normal college which was the predecessor of Beijing Normal University was established after the establishment of the Peking Imperial University. This was the earliest institution for teacher education in China and has lasted over 100 years so far.

After the foundation of the new China, especially after the 1950s, Chinese higher education experienced a large change through the merging of colleges and universities, and the major task of each kind of institution of higher education was defined. Normal universities and colleges, like other types of higher education institutions such as comprehensive liberal arts and technological colleges and universities, became responsible again for teacher education. Thus, the traditional three level initial teacher education systems were born. The three levels of student teacher training were as follows: primary school and nursery teachers were trained in secondary normal schools; junior secondary school teachers were trained in junior normal colleges; and high school teachers were trained in normal colleges and normal universities. At the same time, the in-service teacher training system was adopted from the Soviet model, which meant that in-service teacher training was governed by administrative departments for education and implemented by institutions for teacher education and teacher training schools.

Q: Thanks, can you talk about the current situation in Chinese teacher education?

Gu: Currently, Chinese teacher education is divided into two parts: initial teacher education (ITE) and in-service teacher training. In terms of the former, primary school teachers and nursery teachers need to have a qualification from a junior normal college or above. Some normal colleges and normal universities also run undergraduate programmes to train primary school teachers and nursery teachers. Secondary school teachers are generally trained in normal colleges and normal universities, and receive a Bachelor Degree or higher qualification. In terms of the latter, in-service teacher training previously depended on institutions for teacher education and teacher training schools at provincial and city level respectively. However, institutions for teacher education are gradually disappearing. Nowadays, only a few are still available, such as in Beijing and Jiangsu Province. Teachers' continuing professional development (CPD) is not limited to training through the institutions mentioned above. The Chinese Ministry of Education launched a Master's Education Degree (M.Ed.) programme in 1997, and a Doctoral Degree in Education in 2011.

Currently, Chinese teacher education is transforming, in a way which is characterised by three main features.

Firstly, the teacher education system is moving from the traditional three levels of teacher education to a two level system, which means that nursery teacher training is governed by secondary normal schools, and primary and secondary school teacher training is the responsibility of normal colleges and normal universities. As a result, secondary normal schools decreased from over 1000 to just over 100, and then further decreased to just over 10. Some of the former secondary normal schools changed into general secondary schools and some upgraded to junior normal colleges or merged into junior normal colleges.

Secondly, teacher education is moving from a closed to an open system. In 1999, the Chinese Ministry of Education provided in regulations that teacher education should be not only the responsibility of normal schools, colleges and universities, but also the responsibility of all comprehensive universities as long as they are qualified to provide teacher education. This solved the problem that the curriculum in normal institutions had been excessively had been too narrow. Within the contexts of the various subjects and programmes, student teachers will not only have opportunities to learn about the curriculum for primary and secondary education, but also to learn about other subjects. This will extend and broaden their learning as well as improve the quality of teacher education.

Thirdly, ITE and in-service teacher education is integrating. Integration means higher education institutions need to become responsible for in-service teacher education as well as ITE. Chinese teacher education has not really come together, even though China has

made some progress towards this through the years and some aspects have integrated. For instance, the normal universities run Masters and doctoral programmes for in-service teachers, who study part-time with them during the summer or winter holidays or even in evenings or at weekends. Alternatively, some serving teachers get time off to study on these programmes. Another symbolic change in 2006 was that the Chinese Ministry of Education entrusted its six national normal universities to run a programme to train tuition-free normal student teachers. In addition, a number of undergraduate student teachers move straight to postgraduate study after their graduation from normal college or university.

In addition, the normal universities also provide in-service teacher training, for example through the National Teacher Training Project (NTTP) which is mainly organised for key teachers of different subjects in basic education. Also, some normal universities have their own teacher training centres for short non-diploma courses taking place only in the summer or winter holidays for serving teachers.

At present, the Chinese government is paying much more attention to the development of teachers, and has announced that each teacher must engage in some teacher training every five years. As I mentioned above, NTTP is set up especially for core teachers. There are 12 million school teachers in China. Chinese normal universities cannot take on the heavy task of training all of them, therefore only core teachers have these opportunities. Apart from the short courses provided by normal universities, there are many short course opportunities provided by teacher training agencies. Some of these even run online training, such as the National School Teachers' Continuing Education and the Chinese Teacher Studies programmes.

However, it is important to make clear that the quality of Chinese teachers is still at a very low level. Before the 1980s, the Chinese government had never implemented a system of teacher certification. At that time, the 12 million teachers had reached only basic standards: for instance, primary school teachers needed to have graduated from a secondary normal school, and junior secondary school teachers needed to have graduated from junior normal college. From the 1980s, the system of teacher certification obviously played a significant role in ensuring that school education was orderly and a solid foundation to educate people for the new China.

But, at that time, the requirement was only that teachers should have a certificate or degree, which did not mean that teachers were necessarily of high quality. In relation to the improvement of teacher quality, we still have a very long way to go. Fortunately, our government has paid great attention to teacher education. The investment in teacher education has been increasing every year. In 2000, the government invested 50 million Yuan on teacher training. In 2010, that investment increased to 1.15 billion Yuan. Last year

[2012] was the same as 2010. I heard that this year [2013] the investment will be higher than before, with only a small part being controlled by central government and the larger part being held by local authorities. Hence, there is a national as well as some provincial teacher education projects available in China. In 2012, the government published four professional standards: for nursery teachers, primary school teachers, secondary school teachers and head teachers, respectively. In the future, China will introduce a national examination system for teacher qualification. Two provinces have been trialling this since 2012 and the number of trials will increase in 2013. In the near future, China will fully implement a system of teacher registration just as in foreign countries.

Q: Thank you very much. At present, more and more nations and governments have recognised the importance of teacher education. A number of countries have been reforming their teacher education and increasing the investment in teacher education. In your opinion, what is the developing trend in Chinese teacher education?

Gu: Nowadays, many countries around the world have recognised that teacher education is the key to the improvement of teacher quality. Generally, teachers in most countries have already met the benchmark for teacher standards, especially those who are in developed countries. With the development of science and technology, the demands made of teachers have increased. The World Bank and the Organisation for Economy Cooperation and Development (OECD) have recognised the significance of teacher quality. The need for teachers to continue to learn throughout their careers will be a trend in the development of teacher education.

It is important to improve students' innovative capacity and innovative thinking. Last March, the OECD published a report, *Preparing Teachers and Developing School Leaders for the 21st Century: lessons from around the world*, which gathered opinions from more than 250 respondents who came from over 60 institutions around the world. These opinions indicated that students in the twenty-first century need to master four categories of skill: (a) Ways of thinking – creativity, critical thinking, problem-solving, decision-making and learning; (b) Ways of working – communication and collaboration; (c) Tools for working – information and communications technology and information literacy; (d) Skills for living in the world – citizenship, life and career, and personal and social responsibility. The report indicates that changes in the demand for skills have profound implications for the competencies which teachers themselves need to acquire to teach twenty-first century skills effectively to their students. A generation ago, when teachers could reasonably expect what they taught to last a lifetime, teaching a fixed syllabus of content was at the centre of education in most countries. Today, where individuals can access content on search engines, where routine, rule-based knowledge is being digitised or

outsourced, and where jobs are changing rapidly, teachers need to enable people to become lifelong learners, and to manage non-rule-based, complex ways of thinking and complex ways of working that computers cannot easily take over. In addition, the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation recently published a paper which mentioned the new requirements for students.

Therefore, from my viewpoint, the next main task for Chinese teacher education is to change the methods of education. Generally, educational thinking in China still falls behind that of the rest of the world; hence changing educational ideas will be the most important thing for Chinese teachers. Once these ideas have been changed, new methods will emerge. The problem is that there are so many methods available, but teachers cannot adopt them because of their backward ideas. We should emphasise personalisation, information technology and internationalisation in teacher education in order to keep pace with and meet the requirements of the times.

Currently, there are three main trends in teacher education in China. Firstly, integration of ITE and in-service teacher training is ongoing. Ten years ago, China announced that all comprehensive universities and other types of higher education institutions could engage in teacher education. However, the results that have emerged from putting this into practice do not look ideal. Chinese teacher education still relies mainly on normal colleges and normal universities, although it does encourage other institutions to train teachers.

Due to the way the policy was implemented during these years, some comprehensive universities, such as Beijing University, only provide Masters and doctorate programmes, rather than ITE, which is the most popular way of training undergraduate student teachers. Therefore, in a way, this type of university has not actually trained teachers. In other words, Chinese ITE is still mainly dependent on normal colleges and normal universities. This situation will probably last a very long time.

Secondly, establishing in-service teacher training will take a long time. This is similar to the lifelong learning that I have mentioned in one of my speeches. Given the quality of teachers, we still have a long way to go.

Thirdly, teacher training will draw strongly on information and communications technology. That means more and more training will adopt distance learning and web-based learning methods, which will save time as well as money. As China is a large country, this initiative will contribute to deprived and undeveloped areas, so that good quality resources from the eastern regions can be applied to the western regions.

Q: Would you tell me about the opportunities and challenges that Chinese teacher education faces?

Gu: Chinese teacher education is currently enjoying some unprecedented opportunities. Firstly, the government attaches more importance to education and the development of human resources. The investment in education has gradually increased every year and has now increased to 4% of Chinese GDP. Regarding teacher education, especially teacher training, the investment has increased to more than ten times the amount it was before. Secondly, people pay much more attention to education than before. They call for educational reform, so that will certainly push reform of teacher education forward. Thirdly, China has experienced an era of reform and openness for over 30 years, and much of value can be learnt from foreign countries around the world.

At the same time, Chinese education is facing some very large challenges. On the one hand, the reform of the examination system is very difficult to bring about. As the Chinese system of examination influences everybody and every family, the change needed will be difficult to decide on. We have now discovered that more and more students go abroad in order to avoid the national examination for college entrance [*Gaokao*], which shows that Chinese students have very heavy learning burdens and face very intense competition. The heavy learning burden is mainly due to the very fierce competition in education that is influenced by the fierce competition in society. However, they are also affected by traditional culture and society. Therefore, this issue is an insoluble problem at this stage of the social transformation and in the context of unequal social distribution. So I have to say this issue is a very big challenge for Chinese education. If the assessment always focuses on the results of students and the performance of teachers, teachers will certainly only look at the scores the students got in the examinations, especially in the college entrance examination [*Gaokao*].

Secondly, the task of changing the ideas of teachers is very difficult. Changing teachers' ideas is the key to Chinese teacher education. Changing the concept of education and improving teachers' own literacy are two things that mutually support each other. In this case, changing concepts can help teachers to improve themselves; similarly, improving their literacy will help them change concepts. However, most teachers do not dare to attempt this in the context of an exam-oriented system. To change our teacher education, we need to help teachers widen their outlook and improve their teaching capacity.

Currently, there are some misunderstandings about teacher education within our society. On the one hand, some normal universities emphasise academic quality excessively and ignore, or even oppose, teaching skills. In fact, research on teaching skills is also academic research. On the other hand, they do not acknowledge teachers' professional status. For a

long time, many people thought that if a person had a lot of knowledge then he/she could certainly be a school teacher. Even some scientists still think that the most important thing for a teacher is knowledge of their subject. Therefore, some normal universities follow the comprehensive universities, emphasising scholarship excessively and overlooking teaching skills.

Q: So, how can teacher education improve?

Gu: I think there are some aspects of teacher education that need to be improved. Firstly, we need to focus on the teaching profession and improve teachers' work experience in schools. Two types of work experience – one in a junior secondary school and one in a senior secondary school – were arranged at the time when I was a secondary normal school student. It took me one school year, including 8 weeks in junior secondary school and 12 weeks in senior secondary school to practise teaching and to make observations in classrooms. We only have six weeks for work experience nowadays, which will not contribute to improving teachers' teaching capacity. However, recently this has been addressed in the non-tuition-fees training programme for student teachers.

Secondly, the programmes for teacher education need to be changed. The East China Normal University (ECNU) and the Beijing Normal University (BNU) implemented the five-year system in order to ensure teachers' knowledge of subjects as well as expertise in teaching.

Thirdly, the professional status of teachers needs to be raised. In 1989, I proposed that the teaching profession should be a restricted profession, because there is an inviolable law in our society that the profession which everybody can do will be a profession that does not have its own social status. In other words, only if you are professional will you have your own social status.

So, how can the professionalisation of teachers become a reality? I think the degree for teacher qualification should be raised to a Master's degree. The trajectory of Chinese teacher education is that teacher training originated from the old three levels normal education system to the new two level normal education system and then to the Master's and Doctorate stage of training. However, the speed of training by means of Masters and Doctorates is not appropriate for meeting the demands of Chinese education. Recently, there were 12 million teachers in China, including 6 million secondary teachers. If we train 20,000 Masters per year for secondary schools, we would need 300 years to cover everyone. So it is obvious that we still have a long way to go.

Q: What do you think of the characteristics of Chinese teacher educators?

Gu: I think being a teacher in normal universities should be a separate profession, because they do not only impart knowledge to their student teachers, but also teach student teachers how to teach their students effectively. As they have different work tasks, such as teaching methods, educational theories etc., each of them needs to have a clear belief that he/she is someone who trains teachers. Currently, China has not considered the development of a standard for teacher educators and has no immediate plans to do so.

Q: Professor Gu, what standard of quality do you think teacher educators need to have?

Gu: Firstly, in relation to teaching quality, I think a teacher educator is the same as a school teacher. They both need to have a deep knowledge of the subject that they teach. But, in contrast to a school teacher, a teacher educator needs to have much broader and deeper knowledge.

Secondly, a teacher educator needs to recognise clearly what education is and what the teaching profession is. As the former Prime Minister, Jiabao Wen, has said, students in non-normal universities need only think about themselves, but students in normal universities not only need to think of themselves, but also of their students and their nation's future. Teacher educators need to consider that they are the people who train school teachers and are thus in charge of the development of both the students and the nation.

Thirdly, teacher educators need to have strong professional ethics. They demonstrate these to their student teachers through their body language as well as their speech. Fourthly, teacher educators should be good at telling their student teachers how to teach. They need to have appropriate educational knowledge and skills, as well as principles of classroom teaching and teenage development.

Q: What do you think of the current situation in relation to the professional development of Chinese teacher educators?

Gu: There are three different ways in which teacher educators in normal colleges and universities have entered the profession. The first is by postgraduate education: most teacher educators have graduated with a Master's degree or higher from normal universities. They work as teacher educators as soon as they have graduated from the universities. The second way is that teacher educators come from schools. They were senior school teachers who taught their own subjects. The third way is through working

part-time: they work as part time employees in normal institutions and in schools at the same time.

Q: So what are the main issues that they face in the course of their professional development?

Gu: I think the biggest issue they have is that they lack a connection to school practice. On the one hand, they are highly qualified, as they have a number of opportunities to improve through academic research and teaching research. On the other hand, some of them have never had experience in schools; as a result, they do not know how to teach student teachers to teach. Therefore, we call for our teacher educators to go into schools. In the past, it was the teacher educators who taught subjects who often went into schools rather than those who taught educational theory. Now, we ask the teacher educators who teach educational theory and management to communicate with schools in order to build some partnerships. In fact, BNU has established many partners for student teachers' work experience.

Q: Recently, what policies have been developed in relation to the professional development of teacher educators by the State Council and Ministry of Education?

Gu: None. Even though the State Council produced guidelines to regulate how to improve teachers last year, it did not talk at all about any initiatives for the professional development of teacher educators. Apart from the traditional approaches towards professional development, such as teaching research and educational research, there are no specialised requirements or training programmes available for teacher educators.

In terms of higher education, some key universities have opportunities for teacher educators to go abroad. In addition, some of them offer chances for teacher educators to be visiting scholars at BNU and ECNU. The majority of teacher educators in BNU and ECNU go overseas. We have not announced any requirements for the assessment and supervision of these two methods for the professional development of teacher educators. However, some institutions have used the regulations produced for post assessment and research to improve professional development for teacher educators.

Interview with Professor Zhong

Interview time: 2.00–3.30 p.m. 16 April 2013

Q: Thank you very much for this interview. What are the concepts of “teacher preparation” and “teacher education”?

Zhong: Teacher education in China has developed from “teacher preparation” to “teacher education”. In 2001, the China State Council initially announced the concept of teacher education in its report on the reform and development of primary education, to replace the concept of teacher preparation. In 2003, the Ministry of Education initially set out the task of constructing a system of teacher education in its report *Action Plan for Invigorating Education* (2003–2007).

At the beginning of the implementation of the plan, some scholars did not agree with the concept of teacher education; some even published papers to argue that the concept of teacher preparation should be kept, because the old concept suited the Chinese character better than the new concept.

It cannot be denied that the system of teacher preparation has played a considerable role during this period. Since the foundation of the PRC, especially since the 1980s, it has ensured the provision of teachers for what is the biggest basic education enterprise in the world.

The system of teacher preparation had several characteristics:

Firstly, it was closed. Teacher preparation was in the control of normal institutions. School teachers only came from normal institutions; the graduates of the non-normal institutions could not be school teachers.

Secondly, it focused on the theoretical curriculum of teacher education. The old three subjects (pedagogy, psychology and the teaching methods for the specific subject) were emphasised. As a result, the connection with school education and educational practice was overlooked.

Thirdly, it was one-off and final. ITE was separate from in-service teacher education. There was a lack of systematic plans and support for teachers’ professional development (PD) and continuing professional development (CPD).

The above situation has changed significantly since the 1990s.

Firstly, Chinese higher education institutions have undergone a large adjustment –

comprehensive universities and other universities were encouraged to engage in teacher education as long as they were qualified to do so. Hence, the closed system was opened up.

Secondly, with the progression of the reform of the curriculum, more and larger demands on teacher quality were made. The old system could not respond to the demands on the development of teacher education or represent the new direction of future development. Therefore, it was inevitable that it developed into the system of teacher education.

The concept of teacher education has the following characteristics:

(a) It is open. It provides a new system of teacher qualification which replaced the model of teacher preparation, provided only by the different levels of normal institutions. Nowadays, in addition to normal colleges and universities, comprehensive universities and schools in the specialised technical universities can also train school teachers. Also, there is an innovative model of teacher preparation, in which local authorities and universities cooperate with schools to train teachers.

(b) Professionalisation of teacher preparation. The professionalisation of teachers and teacher educators has been considered the new foundation of and direction for teacher education, as teacher education has become a specialised research and academic field which is gradually establishing its own academic norms and standards.

(c) Integration of teacher education. ITE is progressively integrating into in-service teacher education. CPD and the sustained development of teachers are regarded as key in the improvement of quality.

Q: Thanks a lot. What do you think of current teacher education in China?

Zhong: Currently, Chinese teacher education is undergoing a transition, in which the old system has been gradually collapsing and the new system is forming.

The three main changes are as follows:

Firstly, there are now various ways to prepare teachers. Nowadays, teacher preparation in China can be done not only by going through the programmes that are offered by normal institutions, comprehensive universities and technical universities, but also through the authentication of qualifications. This encourages the graduates of other universities to be involved in the teaching profession as long as they are qualified to do so. In terms of the teacher training models, some universities have abandoned the original model of a three-year college degree and a four-year Bachelor degree and constructed some new models such as 4+2 or 4+1+2 etc. A new cooperating mode has even emerged between

universities, local authorities and schools.

Secondly, ITE and in-service teacher education is beginning to integrate. There are different kinds of universities for ITE. Although colleges and universities undertake some of the tasks involved in in-service teacher training, Pre-service teacher education and in-service teacher education are still two separate systems. Therefore there is a lack of any unified plan. In fact, pre-service training and in-service education are inseparable for teachers' personal development. So, China currently attaches great importance to the integration of pre-service and in-service teacher education.

Thirdly, teachers' reflective practice is emphasised. Teachers should not only "advise, impart knowledge and answer the questions that confuse students", but also be "reflective practitioners" in the process of practice. Therefore we need to reinterpret the standards for the ideal teacher from the point of view of this new recognition of teachers and knowledge.

However, current teacher education in China is facing many difficulties and challenges.

Firstly, examination-oriented education is still dominant in China's education system and educational concepts. Teacher education, especially teacher training, is vulnerable to the influence of the examinations. The conservatives are reluctant to part from a focus on examinations; they insist that knowledge teaching is proper education.

I once went to observe a maths class in a key high school. There was a mathematical problem that only one student in the class was able to solve. However, the student did not want to share the solution with his classmates. After the class, I asked him why. "Professor Zhong", he said, "It is not good to share with other students because, as our teacher once told us, they will be our opponents in the college entrance examinations."

Clearly, in his mind, the monopoly of knowledge is the most important thing. In this case, students are not learning partners but opponents.

As you know, there is a saying about how knowledge changes students' futures; utilitarianism has penetrated the learning of teenagers. The educational achievement of the 12-year curriculum reform has made a large impact on the old educational ideas and provided a steady stream of power and knowledge resources for the professional development of primary and secondary school teachers, but the emphasis on examinations has not abated. The increasingly fierce emphasis on examinations is infinitely expanding the disadvantages of the current school system.

Due to this background, although the professional development of teachers appears to have a new pattern, I still feel that there are some big problems with it. Professional development is likely to be subsumed by the emphasis on examinations. Once it has been subsumed, the consequences for professional development will increasingly become

worse, because the emphasis on examinations will continue to grow and the professional development of teachers will follow the pattern of an emphasis on examinations in the future. This kind of teacher education would be counterproductive.

Secondly, the curriculum reform of teacher education is a difficult task. In recent years, with the curriculum standards for teacher education being published, there have been some changes in the field of teacher education in China. However, the old curriculum model and its conservative ideas are still deeply ingrained.

On the one hand, for a long time, in addition to the old three, the curriculum for teacher education over-emphasised a discipline system and good teaching was pushed to the edge of the curriculum structure. On the other hand, the theoretical curriculum and the practical curriculum were separated, which over-emphasised the theoretical curriculum and ignored educational practice and work experience. Most importantly, pre-service and in-service courses were separated. In-service training courses neither aimed to solve the practical problems of teaching nor focused on teaching theory.

Thirdly, teacher education is much more bureaucratic. To some extent, it ignores the teacher's autonomous status. Now many people are angry about educational administration. As long as the enabling power exists, guidance on reducing administration should certainly be implemented. Over the years, the guidance on alleviating burdens on students is a typical example. I remember that the guidance was implemented when I was a high school student, but so far the burden on students is still very heavy. In this case, the administrative intervention is sometimes too general. Many education authorities thought that producing a paper document could reduce half or one-third of the students' workload. Some local authorities even announced that there would be no burdens at all. In fact, students need a reasonable workload. A statement which says that students do not have any burden is also not appropriate. The point is whether the education administration recognises the individuality of teachers. If so, they need to let go or have very little control over professional development. Can we make the assumption that it would be feasible for China comprehensively to implement the European and American models for evaluating students' learning? Can China influence its teacher education in this way? Can the central administrative department of education completely cancel the college entrance examination system? China has its own national conditions, which are very different from western countries. If China cancelled the college entrance examination system, it would cause chaos in education and society. So I think that it would be very difficult to reform it through a top-down approach.

The basic conditions needed for radical reform are not mature enough. Society as a whole does not want too great an emphasis on examinations in education. But that does not mean that all people have realised this yet. It would not be advisable to carry out a reform of the

college entrance examination system, because our social culture is a culture of bureaucracy. In some sense, we do not have a reforming and innovative environment. So any reform is likely to encounter some heavy resistance.

However, the Japanese case is worthy of consideration. The changes in Japanese schools, including the changes to the emphasis on examinations in education, were initially the result of individual class changes, and then carried on through the setting up of some reforming and experimental pilots, and then gradually spread to other areas and schools. Japan actually still has the college entrance examination system, but it is looked on only as a reference for entering higher schools, and as a result, the weight given to the college entrance examination and test is not great.

Japan now has 3, 000 schools, and one third of these are undergoing a reform, along the lines of the “red bases” and “prairie fire” models in Chinese modern history. There are a lot of similarities in education between China and Japan, so I think the “prairie fire” model is a new and good idea for us. Reforms cannot be completed immediately, but need to be carried out step by step. In terms of the Chinese reform of teacher education, we should initially set up some pilots, and then make changes from classroom to classroom and slowly spread reform throughout the country.

Q: So what are the opportunities and challenges for teachers in the context of the emphasis on examinations in China?

Zhong: Since the beginning of the new century, especially with the implementation of the curriculum reform in China, the whole country has produced a wave of school-based research. The system of the teaching research group in schools has been overtaken, and the professional development of teachers is taking place in a new atmosphere.

Firstly, people’s understanding of the ideal image of a teacher is shifting. Good teachers are not seen as craftsmen, but as researchers and as reflective practitioners.

Secondly, teachers are looking forward to changes in teacher education. With the pressure of the emphasis on examinations that primary and secondary school teachers face, they are looking forward to bottom-up school-based research. So many new forms of activities have taken over from the traditional teacher research group activities, such as case studies, action research, the teaching salon, internet-based teaching research and so on.

Thirdly, there is now policy support and guidance. The publication of the *Curriculum Standard for Teacher Education*, which is a plan for teacher training, as well as the establishment of the system of teacher education standards have offered strong encouragement and support for the professional development of teachers; active research

into teacher knowledge in international education since the 1980s has provided a new methodology and ideological basis for the transformation of professional development; and there is the national teacher education network. These have formed a huge system of integrated teacher education resources for professional development.

Fourthly, large numbers of practical examples of professional development have emerged so far. The exchange of activities between universities and schools is becoming more and more frequent. As a result, some schools that are keen to reform and carry out some practical studies have emerged. Those school teachers who have participated in teaching research have greatly improved both in depth and in breadth.

There is a concern that present professional development would be subsumed by the emphasis on examinations and it has in fact already been so subsumed. The emphasis on examinations will easily be portrayed as a foundation for typical quality-oriented education and teacher training by some schools and so-called scholars. Therefore, professional development is a double-edged sword: it can cut off the growth of the emphasis on examinations, but it can also be an accomplice in intensifying its growth.

Professional development is facing two major challenges. One is how to beat back the emphasis on examinations and its interference, and how to cut off the supply lines that make the emphasis on examinations grow. The second is how to achieve a self-disciplined and creative professional development. For many years, local authorities have tried to train principal and head teachers, who are in the minority of the teacher work force. Unfortunately, they have not yet got the expected satisfactory results. The real requirement for an improvement in the growth of teachers and the formation of the teacher learning community is research by each teacher.

Q: So how can teachers conduct school-based CPD?

Zhong: Firstly, teachers need to move from effective delivery to building cooperation. As we know, the key to the learning process for teachers is the sharing of the tacit knowledge of practitioners, which can be reshaped and practised in the teaching process through classroom observation, in which one shares practical knowledge.

A teacher's growth comes about through their own demands and experiences. Therefore the professional development of teachers cannot break away from their own practice, their reflections on their experiences as well as their mastery of educational theories. Therefore so-called training instruction and training demonstrations are ultimately unreliable.

International teacher education advocates three rules for teachers' learning: the more it is founded in teachers' own needs, the more effective the learning will be; the more it is

founded in teachers' fresh experience, the more effective the learning will be; the more it is founded in teachers' reflection on their practice, the more effective the learning will be. The results of professional development finally depend on the teachers themselves. So teachers really need to treasure every opportunity for their professional development. They should look at the opportunities as training for their pupils, and training for professional development rather than training to fulfil the rules or training for promotion.

Secondly, professional development needs to study children. Some school teachers believe that the teaching of teachers equates to the learning of students. So, for many years, educational practice only focused on the study of teaching methods, especially expository teaching. Theoretically, they discussed teaching principles and teaching methods. However, for a long time, there has been a lack of studies of children, because of the influence of Kairov's Education. So the study of children has always been marginalised.

Q: What do you think of the identities of Chinese teacher educators?

Zhong: The perception of Chinese teacher educators has developed over a long period. The first stage was that the teaching profession was unprofessional. After the foundation of the New China, most people thought that as long as a person had strong ethics, he/she could be a teacher: for example, the ex-servicemen who were returning as veterans could become political teachers in schools. So at that time teaching was not seen as a profession.

The second stage was that teaching was seen as semi-professional. Teachers did need some professional training, but it was not thought to be as strict as student doctors in medical college. Most people thought that doctors had to be trained in order to avoid hurting patients but they had not recognised that the harms caused by teachers who were not professionally trained would be much more serious than those caused by doctors.

The third stage was that teaching was seen as professional. Especially after the curriculum reform, China emphasised teachers' professionalism. The teaching profession is different from engineering, law, medicine etc. It is the professions' profession and the profession of learning.

Q: What qualities do you think teacher educators need to have?

Zhong: Firstly, teacher educators need to have three major research competences: on children, on teachers and on learning materials. At present, our pre-service teacher education lacks these. This is a problem because, without them, normal universities and colleges will lose their role, because teaching is based on three elements: children, teachers

and learning materials. Some articles published in France and the US is based on these three elements.

Secondly, the teaching of teacher educators must be aimed at education equality. Education is a public good in society, so education must safeguard everyone's basic human rights, particularly the right to learn. Everybody has a right to develop himself/herself from birth. Learning is an inalienable right. Starting from this basic human right, educational equality is required. That means education initiatives must not hurt vulnerable groups. This leads to the need for teaching for social justice. I think this is a belief that teachers in the mainland of China need to have. Without this belief, the quality of teachers would not be high. Thirdly, there are some points that are contained in the public mission for teacher educators, for example, quality of thinking, a belief in education and educational ethics; knowledge of teaching; and lastly teaching skills. In addition, team work among teacher educators is also very important.

Q: Thank you. What do you think are the main issues relating to professional development that Chinese teacher educators face?

Zhong: I think there are two points. One is the lack of international perspective. Many college teachers teach behind closed doors. They think that what they teach are the eternal truths. Secondly, teacher educators need to face up to the practice of teaching. They cannot hide from practice, or go away from practice. Teacher educators must be grounded in practice and build a community with teachers and schools.

So, how can we resolve these issues? I think the key is the integration of teacher education. Some of the training quality in district teacher training schools is lower than in the normal universities, and the quality in normal universities is lower than at world level. In this case, for example in Shanghai, if the quality of the training schools at district level remains low, the normal universities in Shanghai would still be unable to resolve any issues. The reform of teacher education does not mean constructing a training centre but really integrating ITE and in-service teacher education; the reform of teacher education does not mean concentrating all resources in a single point, but providing them to every school. Specifically, professors and young teacher educators should go into the schools, which is the real way forward for teacher education. Even though some universities organise many training classes, which obviously are a good thing, this is not the fundamental way to learn.

The policy-making by the administrative departments of education for the professional development of teacher educators is still non-existent in China, for example on teachers' pay, teachers' social status etc. Previously, as we know, the government stated that teachers' pay and status were equal to that of civil servants. Unfortunately, that has still

failed to become reality. Nowadays, the government calls attention to the hardware rather than the software and people-ware. I think the right order is the other way round.

Teacher education is certainly a profession, but there is no systematic support and no specialised institutions to impose standards.

Interview with Mrs Sun

Interview Time: 9.00–10.15 a.m. 18 April 2013

Q: Hi, Mrs Sun, thanks for this interview. Can you tell me about the current situation in relation to teacher education in Shanghai?

Sun: Yes, Shanghai has 124.7 thousand school staff, including 48.1 thousand primary school teachers and 51.8 thousand secondary school teachers. Most of the school teachers were trained in normal universities and other types of university in Shanghai. In-service school teachers are trained by different levels of institution, at national, city and district level, which mainly rely on the resource alliance for teacher education. This is a large network which comprises many experts in teacher education: universities, colleges, schools and local authorities. It draws on its extensive resources in teaching, teaching research, scientific research and teacher training to be of benefit to the development of teachers. In terms of the management of teacher training, we use a credit bank which is organised by the Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, implemented by all the district governments and practised by all the schools. This system focuses on three aspects of teacher training: educational commitment, professional competence and overall quality.

Here are some aspects of current teacher education in Shanghai:

Trials of the reform of teacher qualification We have entrusted Putuo District with the trial of the regular registration of teachers. We have defined the objectives, and designed a registration procedure, the requirements for initial registration and the standard requirements for work experience.

Training opportunities for school teachers We recommend head teachers and teachers for the NTTP. Heads of education authorities, head teachers and key teachers, and inspectors of education are selected for the NTTP every year.

We enhanced the development of the resource alliance. We have completed a number of improvements to the resource alliance, including a curriculum scheme for school teacher training, course outlines for senior teachers in the Chinese language, mathematics and English language, and guidance for school-based teacher training. We improved the database of curriculum resources and management for school teachers, and have conducted two cycles of city level training which 45,244 school teachers took part in from within Shanghai.

We carry out some training projects for the best talent. We have completed three sessions of the project for high quality teachers and head teachers which 818 candidates have

participated in. In addition, we launched three sessions of the Yangtze River Delta high quality head teacher joint training project. Around 100 head teachers from Shanghai have attended the training project in Jiangsu, Zhejiang and Shanghai.

We also emphasise training for school teachers who work in the suburbs and *Chongming* County, which is the only county in Shanghai. We have completed three sessions of training for novice teachers in their first to fifth teaching year, three sessions of training for excellent young teachers in their sixth to tenth teaching year, two sessions of training for mature teachers over their tenth teaching year and three sessions of training for key teachers who work in the independent primary schools where the children of employees who immigrated to Shanghai can be taught.

We have launched some projects for teacher training overseas. In 2012, we organised training for 20 teacher trainers in Finland. Also, we sent 20 head teachers and 20 school teachers to California to shadow head teachers and school teachers. Some teachers in general education have been sent overseas as visiting students for degree courses.

We run competitions for inspirational teachers, such as the Shanghai teaching model, the *Baogang* award for teacher excellence, the Shanghai *Yucai* award, the Gardener award and so on.

We are preparing to reform the system of professional titles for school teachers. We have drawn up a scheme to trial, which includes the integration of professional titles for primary and secondary school teachers, the transition arrangements for the reform, the establishment of a “senior” title for school teachers (to equal the title of professor in a university), the appraisal methods to be used and the requirements for the award of the ‘senior’ title.

Q: What is the content of the training for in-service school teachers?

Sun: In terms of the training content, we emphasise the development of teachers’ professional commitment and quality through three modules: teacher ethics; knowledge and skills; and practical experience. Modules 1 and 2 mainly focus on theoretical learning while module 3 provides direct experience.

Module 1 trains teachers in professional ideals and professional morality, with content such as the importance of a positive attitude to their positions and their students, of teaching rigorously and of researching thoroughly. Module 1 is also used to foster the teacher’s general education with courses in law, the arts, science, physical and mental health etc.

Module 2 is used to improve the teacher’s professional knowledge and skills, and covers

modern educational ideas, expertise in their subject, teaching design and implementation, class management, moral education student creativity, guidance on student development, international exchange, development of information resources, assessment of educational quality and so on.

Module 3 aims to train teachers through practice and experience. We recognised teachers' need of teaching practice and have adopted training methods such as teaching observation and diagnosis and the discussion of projects in order to help teachers master class management, family education, the moral education of students, psychological counselling and other practical knowledge in education and to master curriculum development, teaching design, teaching methods, the teaching process, teaching evaluation, learning guidance etc.

In terms of the proportion of the content, module 1 accounts for 10-20%; module 2 accounts for 30-40%; and module 3 accounts for about 50%. Therefore, we emphasise problem-oriented practice. In terms of the implementation of the training, module 1 is implemented at city level, which means that the training is run by SMEC, module 2 is at district level, and module 3 is at school level. Finally, the implementation system is in three parts, covering the curriculum, managing the institutions, and assessment and management.

Q: But how do you manage the training?

Sun: We manage a system of credits for school teachers in a credit bank. As you know, all school teachers need to complete 360 hours of training within a cycle of five years in China. This is the national standard. In Shanghai, apart from the national standard, different types of teacher have different training requirements, as follows: senior secondary school teachers must undertake 540 hours of training; heads of schools must undertake at least 240 hours of off the job training (excluding head teachers in their first year); new heads of schools must undertake at least 300 hours of training in headship in their first year; class advisers must undertake at least 30 hours of training in special topics; teacher trainers must undertake at least 72 hours of training; and new teachers in their work experience year must undertake at least 120 hours of class observation. Ten hours of training can be converted into one credit.

The credits for the different courses that the candidates have completed are totalled over the five years of training. Teachers are required to complete 36 credits, including 12 for ethics and literacy (including 6 credits for ethical education courses), 14 credits for knowledge and skills, and 10 credits for practical experience. As we have added a requirement for 18 credits in courses of educational research for senior secondary school teachers, they need to complete a total of 54 credits.

Q: How does Shanghai implement the curriculum of Professional Development for Teachers?

Sun: Shanghai has about 120 thousands school teachers. Every teacher has a CPD record. We have designed over 500 city level courses, so teachers have many opportunities to select the courses that they prefer and then obtain credits. The courses are dynamic, as we adopt online teaching so that a teacher learns by watching videos. We also use classroom teaching. In addition, we draw on teaching resources from various institutions, such as ECNU, SHNU, Shanghai University of Sports, and teacher training schools in the specific district or county, NTTP etc. The most useful training courses will focus on the school-based curriculum, because these emphasise the practical experience of teachers and solutions for the problems that exist within schools.

Q: What training methods do you adopt?

Sun: We carry out training that meets teachers' needs, such as case studies, practice inquiries, participation, discussions and so on. We also encourage teachers to engage in self-directed study, and other personal study organised locally.

We focus on the effectiveness of teacher training. We plan the teacher training for the city hub and the suburbs as a whole and share the training resources created by schools and teacher training institutions at city or district level. We have a number of training styles, such as gathering and training teachers in a specific place, project work, face to face training in colleges and universities, distance learning, school-based training, lectures from expert teachers, overseas training etc.

Q: In terms of teacher training in Shanghai, what points do you emphasise?

Sun: In terms of the training content, we focus on demand-oriented and innovation-oriented teacher training. We aim to provide what teachers want in their teaching practice. In terms of teacher groups, we focus on key teacher training in order to produce top talent in teacher education, rural areas and low-performing schools. In addition, we emphasise training for the teacher trainers.

Q: In terms of the training of teacher trainers, does Shanghai have any good ideas?

Sun: Sure. Shanghai has explored some effective ways to provide training for teacher trainers. Firstly, we improved district-level institutions for teacher training. We set

standards for these institutions and have completed the first cycle of assessment of district level teacher training schools. We employed experts from universities and academic institutions as well as special grade senior teachers as part-time teacher trainers from schools.

Secondly, we have explored a new system for the selection, assessment, retention and dismissal of part-time teacher trainers. We intend to set standards for teacher trainers and design a number of training projects that focus on the different roles of teacher trainers, such as training manager, training designer, and training implementer and so on.

Thirdly, we encouraged innovative research in teacher education. We encouraged universities, institutions of scientific research and teacher training schools at district level to carry out different kinds of studies into teaching, policy, training methods, assessment, and curriculum for teacher education and so on.

Q: What has Shanghai achieved in relation to teacher training so far?

Sun: We have had a lot of breakthroughs regarding teacher education. (a) We have identified that the major issue which needs to be resolved is teachers' practice needs. (b) We have established a curriculum for teachers' CPD. (c) we have set up a community for professional development.

Q: Can you describe Shanghai's project for high quality teachers and head teachers?

Sun: Well, the project aims to train high quality teachers and head teachers in Shanghai. This project is led by a senior expert and is directed by a supervisory group which comprises SGSTs and experts in universities. They train candidates in advanced ideas on teaching and pedagogy, provide practice with experts, study bases, opportunities for self-reflection, interaction with the other candidates, the recognition of achievements, question-based study etc. We have so far completed three sessions which focused tightly on the practice of teaching and got some very good feedback.

Q: In addition to these, do you have plans for the future?

Sun: We implemented the induction year training project in 2012, which had been trialled in 2011. The reason why we carried out this project was the lack of training from the normal universities, because we thought that induction training was very important. As you know, only about 30% of novice teachers come from the only two normal universities

(ECNU and SHNU), about 30% of novice teachers come from the 211 universities, and the rest come from other comprehensive universities. Therefore, the proportion of new teachers from comprehensive universities has increased. We have established some bases in schools and brought together university professors, experts and scholars as well as senior teachers in schools.

But how to conduct the induction year for novices is still a significant question for teacher education in Shanghai. We have established a number of schools of professional development, which are for teachers' professional development, induction year teacher training and guidance on work experience.

Q: How is it possible to guide student teachers on their work experience?

Sun: We employ some school teachers to guide student teachers, and university teachers also have the responsibility of supporting student teachers. The school teachers will assess the performance of the student teachers, and the school will provide a certificate for the student teacher at the end of the work experience. Student teachers are not permitted to have full registration until they have received these certificates.

Q: What is full registration?

Sun: The central government announced that school teachers would be granted full registration if they had completed a 60-day induction period and received a certificate. However, Shanghai has its own requirement that school teachers must attend a one-year induction. If they qualify they will be granted full registration, and then they must participate in the 5 year in-service teacher training cycle.

Q: In relation to ITE, what innovative ways to prepare teachers does Shanghai have?

Sun: Well, Shanghai has a distinctive mode of ITE, which is being trialled by ECNU and SHNU and is called the 4+2 mode. It consists of a 4 year B.Ed. course followed by a 2 year MEd (including 1 year's work experience).

Interview with II 01

Interview time: 2:00-3:00 p.m. 18 April 2013

What are the distinctive areas of knowledge and competencies for teacher educators?

Teachers should know about teenagers and the knowledge that they have. They should know the subject they teach and its relationship with other subjects, and be able to establish good relations with teenagers, and improve their students' knowledge of the subject. However, teacher educators need to have a wider range of knowledge and more knowledge of their subject. For example, they need to have knowledge of the history of science, the history of education and so on. They also need to have an international perspective and knowledge of education and psychology.

A teacher educator should know about psychology, ways of thinking and the professional careers of student teachers. Teacher educators cultivate student teachers' practical skills based on this knowledge. So they need to think more deeply and get a wider perspective.

Could you talk about your work?

I think there are three points in relation to my roles: firstly, a teacher educator needs to know what student teachers need, which means what the national requirements for future teachers are and what the student teachers themselves need. I think teacher educators should have good knowledge and understanding in these areas. They not only need to know about student teachers, but also about the real situation within schools; secondly, teacher educators should prepare well designed lessons for training teachers. As you know, we university teachers do not have course books. We need to devote time to preparing lessons ourselves. Therefore we need to read widely, prepare a number of teaching case studies, think and design the lessons, and reflect on whether they are relevant and effective for student teachers. Thirdly, we need to act as an example for our student teachers. As a teacher educator, I need to think about how to organise teaching. I need to teach about teaching in front of my students. On the one hand, I need to focus on imparting knowledge.

What approaches do you take to your personal development?

Teaching, research and writing articles and books; I have also been involved in domestic and international academic conferences.

How do you rate them?

They are useful. To a teacher, teaching is his/her main duty and responsibility; scientific research is his/her motivation. Otherwise, he/she will not have a lasting effect. Academic exchange is the same. They are similar to the old Chinese saying that *Kaijuanyouyi* (reading is useful). Therefore, these types of activities are all useful for personal development.

What other types of activities that do not contribute directly to your professional development do you participate in?

For example, I like to participate in charitable activities for the public good. I am a member of the Chamber of Commerce at the moment, which set up the scholarship programme in *Jinggangshan* University. As I am an educational advisor, I work on behalf of the Chamber of Commerce to award this scholarship to more than 20 students. This award is to encourage university students to involve themselves in creative inventions. I am a scholar and I have the responsibility of bringing together a group of business people in the Chamber of Commerce. In addition, I take part in some party affairs and administrative work. All of these are not directly relevant to my professional development.

Will these activities affect your work?

If I handle them well, they do not affect my professional development, as professional development is complementary to the other activities. We can get a lot of enlightenment and help for our professional development from other activities.

Do you often communicate with your colleagues in your work?

Yes. We often communicate with each other in our research group as well as with those in different groups. We meet monthly and mainly focus on seminars and teaching research conferences as well as having research group discussions. For example, the regular meeting for group development is very important for us, as we can exchange ideas and share research results, which helps us a lot. For example, I did not know much previously about research on intercultural education or educational philosophy. However, through the discussions with my colleagues I now have a lot of new knowledge on these topics.

Do you often communicate with school teachers?

[Yes], very often. I am mainly involved in in-service teacher training and interactive discussion. I also work as an educational advisor for many schools. I often observe class teaching, and engage in group discussion. I know the teaching situation and teachers' lives in these ways.

Are your research results all based on front line practice?

Yes. Research is a service for society; both theoretic research and practical research are from the front line.

Do you often contact schools?

Yes, I mentor more than ten schools. I usually do tracking studies, and I have tracked some of them for more than 10 years.

What professional support did you get from your university?

The university sends its teachers to study and be trained by certain organisations that offer training. Generally, university teachers are trained in the Shanghai Municipal Communist Party School which originally trained administrative officials and recently added training projects for key university teachers in subjects. The participation rate of university teachers is high. SMEC invests 10 million Yuan per year in this project. Professors and deputy professors all have opportunities to participate in this project in a ten year cycle. That means that every ten years, a university teacher who is a deputy professor or above will have a three month training opportunity. The content of the training includes the international situation, international politics, law, history, ocean strategy, public opinion, information communication technology, crisis management and so on. This is not professional training, but it trains one in a wide range of general knowledge in the humanities and social sciences. During the training, some first-class professors from the prestigious universities, such as *Beijing*, *Fudan* and *Tongji*, with some of them even being academicians, provide courses. This training project mainly focuses on young and middle-aged teachers acquiring knowledge in order to promote the concept of teachers advancing with the times. All university teachers have opportunities to participate in this project, not just those who work in the teacher education field. Generally, SMEC assigns an allocation to each university; for example, ECNU has 60 places for teachers who are selected from

different colleges and departments and can take part in the project each year. Since the government sponsors the project, teachers take part in full-time studies, listening to lectures in the morning and afternoon, and participating in group discussions in the evening. Therefore, it is very effective. After ten days of studies in the School, they have a chance to investigate and research outside. Different groups go to different places, and then they return to the School and report their conclusions, and discuss and share their findings.

I have not been involved in it yet, but ECNU is launching a project for young and middle-aged teachers at the moment, which mainly focuses on the induction of teachers. All teachers who have less than 5 years' work experience can engage in this project. The project has two parts: one is induction, once per week for ten weeks; the other is teaching skills training, which aims to teach how to teach and is mainly for novices, especially for those who have no background in teacher education, as they need a transition from being a formal university teacher. In relation to research, the most common way is that the universities encourage their staff to visit domestically and internationally. It is understood that ECNU does not have overall training projects for teacher educators yet.

In terms of personal development, visiting other scholars is intended to improve teachers' research capacities. Apart from this, most universities have mentoring schemes.

Which approaches to PD do you think would be more effective?

They can all be effective, and can reinforce each other. Training is helpful for research, and similarly, research is helpful for training. So it is difficult to say which one is more effective.

What policy documents about teacher education at different levels do you know about?

None. But I do know that there is news that SMEC will enhance the training of university teachers, especially the induction of university teachers, over the next ten years. SMEC will publish a new policy document to support training in the near future, which will include ideas about school teachers' training. In the past, many people thought that teachers who were good at research could be university teachers. However, with the increase in the number of university teachers, some teaching issues have been emerging. Some universities have begun to look for ways to resolve these issues. For example, *Shanghai Jiaotong University* has even invited the scholars from our department (the Department of Curriculum and Instruction) to guide their new teachers. Some of them were Ph.Ds, who had graduated overseas, and some of them were in science and technology and they do not have any background in teacher education. We observed their classroom

teaching and gave them some advice and feedback. Although some universities have recognised the issues, many universities outside the teacher education institutions do not focus on teacher training.

Although you are a senior teacher educator, you might have encountered many difficulties at the beginning of your work. Can you say a little about them?

Sure. I was not good at expression and controlling the class at the beginning of my teaching career. Because Chinese universities do not emphasise speech classes, most novices feel nervous when they teach in the classrooms initially. They sometimes stutter, or speak in dialect, and they therefore might make their students very confused.

I am in my 50s, which is a bottleneck and my age is a restriction for me. Although I have considerable experience in teaching, I sometimes suffer from depressed moods when trying to progress my research and seek promotion. How to make my research and teaching more creative is the big challenge for me, and will have a great influence on my future career. Seeking creativity has sometimes made me lose my way and make slow progress.

How did you overcome the initial difficulties?

That was mainly down to me. I was good at studying, and I studied actively. So I rapidly improved. At the same time, the department also helped me a lot. For example, the department assigned senior teachers to observe my teaching and give me a lot of feedback, similar to teaching observations in schools. I think these types of issues are easily resolved, and the key to that is active study.

How are you solving your current issues?

I need external support for this. For example, the university could provide me with opportunities such as international exchange and could approve my research projects. In terms of project approval, if I am not successful in the short term that would seriously affect my confidence. As you know, when people experience frustrations, they long for others to help them build their confidence back up. Currently, universities pay much more attention to target management than the management of their people.

In terms of personal development, what do you need currently?

I think there are two aspects: firstly, I hope I can engage in a more advanced platform for professional learning, especially in an opportunity for academic exchange overseas. Secondly, in terms of research, I hope I get a clear direction for my research. As you know, there is a particular atmosphere in China: researchers prefer to research the hottest topics of interest to government or Party leaders, or just what is most popular at that moment. Therefore the research system is sometimes inconsistent, which causes dilemmas for researchers. For example, I am a researcher in the Institute of Comparative Education; we have diverse research subjects but are led by Professor H (anonymity) who researched inclusive education in the past and researches intercultural education at the moment. As he frequently changes the topics, the system of research is not consistent. We all follow him, because he is the leader of the research group. In reality, we have lost ourselves at present. So, I hope I can get a clear direction for my research in the future.

But who can provide you with an advanced research platform?

The university.

Who will support your research direction?

Again, the university and the research team that I am in. The leader of the research group should play his role well. He not only needs to support several research subjects, but also assign the topics and inspire each sub-team. If this is the case, the construction and development of the research groups will be very clear. In such an active research group, every member will do his best. Everyone in our group works alone with their own research subject, and we lack cooperation. We need to cooperate otherwise it is difficult to take the results of the research into account.

Interview with II 02

Interview time: 6:30-7:30 p.m. 28 March 2013

What are the distinctive areas of knowledge and competencies for teacher educators?

I think school teachers should have three types of knowledge: theoretical knowledge, contextual knowledge, and practical knowledge. Teacher educators not only need to have these three types of knowledge, but also need to know more than teachers do. This is a basic requirement. Apart from the knowledge that teachers should have, teacher educators also need to have general knowledge, as they should view things more broadly and stand higher [than school teachers]. One is good general knowledge, as they need to take a macro view and take a wide perspective. They need to have comprehensive thinking, so that they have general knowledge of different subjects. The other is belief. School teachers look at the teaching profession as a vocation or profession, but in a teacher educator's view, teaching should be both a profession or vocation and an enterprise. So as long as teacher educators have a deep understanding of the teaching profession, they can influence school teachers.

I will firstly look at the competence of organisation. A teacher educator should be able to arrange (teaching) activities; he/she should take the lead and coordinate activities flexibly. He/she needs to balance the internal and external relationships and his physical and mental situation. Secondly, he/she should have competence in self-study. Most teacher educators use self-directed study for personal development, but the problem is that they do not know how to go about it. They either study in a very haphazard way or in a blinkered way. Self-directed study is very important for a teacher educator. As long as teacher educators have clear beliefs and learning methods, they can improve themselves any time and in any location. Thirdly, (he needs to have) competence in management. As he/she needs to deal with problems as they arise in real life situations, he needs to be competent in management in order to solve problems flexibly and safely.

Could you talk about your identity?

I am in charge of teacher training, which is divided into four parts. Firstly, I teach general educational theory for school teachers, for example in the large scale training projects organised by SMEC or the Ministry of Education. Secondly, I train key school teachers, focusing on research methods, the conduct of research projects and reporting research results for head teachers and key teachers. Thirdly, I train middle ranking teachers who have had some experience of teaching but did not reach high levels. I give them tailored

training which is geared to their own situation and the situation of their schools. As different schools have different developmental targets, their training needs are different. I sometimes support teaching research groups, sometimes support school teachers individually, and sometimes work with teaching researchers by concentrating on a particular research topic. Fourthly, I provide systematic training, covering three types of training: degree-level; postgraduate, like Masters and doctorates; and credits, to count towards the 36 credits which school teachers must complete every five years.

How would you describe your professional roles?

I can give you my views by talking about the system of teacher education in China. I think that the roles of teacher educators are crucial and significant, but neither policies nor the government pay enough attention to them. In terms of the professional development of teachers, who is to teach the teacher educators? Can the university teachers provide the training? Currently, university teachers maintain a good distance from school teachers: they do not know about schools and school teachers. ITE and CPD are the responsibility of university teachers and teacher educators, who focus on theory and practice respectively. The problem is what structure of knowledge and competencies a teacher educator should have. What types of training do they need? Finally, who can train them? These questions have not yet been resolved and the problems constrain the development of teacher education.

What is the key for playing these roles?

I think there are three aspects. Firstly, you should have strong passion, truly see teacher education as a sacred thing, and be willing to dedicate yourself to teacher education.

Secondly, a teacher educator should know the object of their teaching – student teachers or school teachers – well, and be familiar with practice in schools. Thirdly, a teacher educator should understand educational theories and teaching methods very well. The most important thing is for him to understand people, as the objects of education are people. In the Chinese educational system, there is a good deal of educational knowledge, psychological knowledge and knowledge of teaching methods, but a great lack of focus on people themselves. A teacher educator needs to know the difference between how teachers are internally and externally. Internally, they are normal people. Externally, they have the roles that society requires of them, which force them to have extraordinary personalities. So teacher educators should understand teachers' dual roles thoroughly, so that they can communicate well with teachers.

What professional development activities have you engaged in?

Firstly, I participate in governmental policy-making, which relates to the development of plans for teacher education. (I feel this is) wonderful for my professional development. Secondly, I participate in many conferences and seminars. Thirdly, I take part in teaching demonstrations and competitions organised by different districts. Fourthly, I often communicate with the many experts whom I have met during many teacher training projects.

These are all very helpful but they are not very systematic or organised. So my professional development is mainly down to my own reflection and interests.

What other types of activities that do not contribute directly to your professional development do you participate in?

So many diverse activities [laugh]. As I mentioned before, I have changed position seven times, usually for reasons not related to my professional development. The most disturbing thing is the number of meetings; I cannot stand the endless meetings. Secondly, I have to participate in many celebrations and ceremonies. Thirdly, I have to entertain guests when they visit our department. Fourthly, I have to have working dinners with many people. None of these activities are related to my PD.

Do you often communicate with people outside the education circle?

Yes, many. For example, I was head of the College of Art last year, and was acquainted with many artists.

Do you often communicate with school teachers?

Yes. I keep in touch with many schools. For example, I have partner schools in different districts, such as *Minhang*, *Zhabei*, *Xuhui* and so on, and work with institutions of teacher education, such as STTC, the education school of SHNU, the head teacher training centre of the Ministry of Education in ECNU, each teacher training school and so on. I go to *Xianxia* secondary school and *Changning* secondary school once per week. Also, I always keep in touch with teaching researchers in many teacher training schools.

What is the relationship between teacher educators and schools?

In Shanghai, the providers of teacher education can be divided into three levels: universities and colleges; teacher training schools; and specialised experts. They have formed a relatively complete system and they have a strong interactive relationship. They play a key role in the three levels of training in Shanghai. However, the problem is whether the system of teaching researchers in Shanghai, which is a product of the times, can handle the new situation – more and fresher blood, new teachers who come with postgraduate degrees, and supply the teaching work force – in the light of the teaching researchers' ages, degrees and so on. Can they provide sustained professional development for the new teaching work force? Can they lead them, train them? Is a teacher who has a Master's degree or Ph.D. degree willing to be instructed by teaching researchers?

Who are the “experts”?

I think there are three categories: the trainers who are well known and organised by the government for a particular training project; the university teachers who are well known and recognised by the public; and the trainers who work for the private training agencies. At the moment, each district and each school has specific funding for training, so there is a big market for the training of teachers and many training companies are being established. Some private training companies provide training of better quality than that organised by the governments, because the latter do not pay attention to the needs of teachers, or the views of experts and only care about their own theories. So this is the outstanding issue for Chinese teacher education.

How do you go about your own professional development?

I mainly depend on self-directed study; sometimes I exchange ideas with experts and school teachers, especially experienced head teachers and school teachers. In addition, I think that visits and exchanges are important, such as short-term visits and exchanges at home, and studies overseas.

Do you often communicate with domestic universities?

I generally do this each year. I have visited many universities across the country, such as Beijing University, Beijing Normal University, Tsinghua University and so on. I have participated in both conferences and collaborative projects, such as the training project for

rural school teachers in Southwest University, the Fulbright project in Tsinghua University, and the projects in the Shanghai Teacher Training Centre. Sometimes, I communicate with the experts and school teachers, especially the experienced head teachers and school teachers. I have discussed with so many experts who come from different areas, and different institutions, which was very enlightening.

Which methods are most appropriate for your personal development?

I think the most crucial method for me is self-directed study. In addition, discussion with experts is very helpful, as long as I have a clear target and an explicit direction. I have been lucky enough to have met so many prestigious experts who have given me a lot of helpful advice and knowledge; I think that was wonderful.

Do you know of any public policies in relation to the professional development of a teacher educator?

More policies have been published than before, such as curriculum standards for teacher education, a plan for teachers' professional development etc. Shanghai has more policy documents on teaching, training and so on than the state.

What factors influence your professional development?

Firstly, [I think that should be] the bureaucracy. As you know, as soon as someone produces an excellent performance, he will be made an administrator. Secondly, I have many social engagements. Both factors are negative. The most positive factor that influences me is my teachers who taught me when I was at university. For example, I first met professor A (anonymity) in the Northwest University when I was an undergraduate student. He never sat down when he was teaching in the classroom. He thought a teacher educator shouldn't sit down in front of his students, and he believed that a teacher educator should know everything about what he teaches rather than teach by just reading the materials in the classroom. These two points have always influenced me. I admire both my Master's supervisor and doctoral supervisor Professor B (Anonymity), who has also instructed me a lot.

Further, family factors should be considered. I am always so busy that I do not have time to spend with my family. My wife deals with all the housework; I could not work well without my wife's help and support. Another important factor is good interaction with

student teachers, which can make you feel proud of your teaching. So the happiest thing for me is teaching in the classroom; as long as I am in the classroom, I am excited. In addition, communications with my colleagues are also important. I like discussing matters with accomplished experts. We are not only friends in the research field, but also personal friends in real life. In brief, as long as I am able to coordinate everything well, I could have a well-developed career.

What difficulties do you encounter in the course of your personal development?

Time. The bureaucracy has taken so much time from me. So I have to study after 10 p.m. at night, go to bed after 2.30 a.m., and then get up at 6 a.m. So I sleep fewer than 5 hours per night. Despite this, at weekends I am still very busy because I have so many training courses to do.

Can these issues be solved? Who can help you?

Frankly, I have to solve these issues by myself. I am a Communist, so must do as ordered by the organisation. The reason why I changed position seven times and did not refuse any post is because I am a Communist. I must comply with the arrangements made by my superiors.

In terms of personal development, what do you need currently?

As far as I am concerned, my greatest need is to do more fieldwork in schools. I really admire Professor Sato Manabu who took a camera and visited over 3,000 schools.

Interview with II 03

Interview time: 10-11 a.m. 29 March 2013

What are the distinctive areas of knowledge and competencies for teacher educators?

I think the largest difference is that teacher educators take a wider view and have larger ideas. We need to have diverse knowledge and different types of expertise.

Could you talk about your work?

Yes. I am a teacher of pre-school education. I am 50 years old. I always look on myself first as an elder, and then as a teacher educator.

I am in charge of both teaching and administration. I also engage in some research projects, when I have time.

I think I love teaching, children and student teachers.

What professional development activities have you engaged in?

Firstly, I am involved in the activities of my teaching research group. Secondly, I sometimes go to nurseries, when I have the opportunity. Thirdly, I often communicate with nursery teachers. Fourthly, I sometimes visit sister colleges that have similar programmes and discuss things with the people in the visiting groups that exchange with our college. Fifthly, I take part in many seminars and lectures.

What other types of activities that do not contribute directly to your professional development do you participate in?

I think most of my activities are related to my professional development. For example, I can get a lot of insight from administration.

Do you often get in touch with people who are outside the education circle?

Yes. I often talk to people who work in the media, as I worked in this field for four months

previously.

Do you cooperate with your colleagues, nursery teachers and people who are in the pre-school education field?

Yes. I cooperate with a nursery which is partnered with our college. Sometimes we share resources. For example, the nursery often invites my colleagues to visit, and some of our graduates have worked there.

Does your college have regulations in relation to engagement in nurseries?

Yes. It is associated with job appraisal.

Do you often communicate with each other?

Yes, we often have teaching research meetings. Also, we have some teaching competitions; we regularly discuss issues about teaching then.

What are your approaches to your professional development?

The college provides many opportunities; for example, it sent us to be trained, and provided teaching research activities, promotions and so on. But the most important thing is self-directed study.

Did you obtain any support in relation to your professional development?

I know that there are not many policy documents about professional development. Our college has a training plan for training both teachers in pre-school education and in other subjects.

What difficulties do you encounter in the course of your professional development?

There is not enough time available for professional development, as I have a lot of work every day. Also, the students are not always diligent, and sometimes I feel discouraged.

In terms of study time, I do my best to squeeze it in. However, the situation in relation to teaching is very difficult to change, as the students have formed fixed habits of learning and behaviour.

Interview with II 04

Interview time: 2:00-3:00 p.m. 26 April 2013

What are the distinctive areas of knowledge and competencies for teacher educators?

Firstly, expertise, such as knowledge of the subject matter that I teach. Knowledge of teaching practice, particularly how to apply the knowledge of teaching practice in nurseries. Secondly, there are views about values. We are different from primary education, in that we need to have the right views on values and education; they are very important.

Could you talk about your work?

I think the key role for me is to build a bridge between nursery educational practice and future student teachers, as they will work as nursery teachers in what is the very first field of education. Therefore I focus on connecting theory with educational practice, and I hope I am able to let them know about the most recent research findings. They are all undergraduates, so they not only need to know about teaching skills, but also need to apply basic theory to educational practice, and this is the emphasis of my teaching.

Do you often communicate with the nurseries?

Rarely. As I mentioned, I regularly communicated with nurseries when I was a university student, but currently I do not have the time or opportunity to visit them. However, the college plans to set up some cooperative partnerships with nurseries near the college, in Jiading District.

Do you often visit nurseries and communicate with the teachers there?

Frankly, I have only gone to nurseries twice since I have worked here. But I went to nurseries very often when I studied at university.

Since you teach so many classes, do you have time to focus on your professional development?

I do not have many new courses that I am teaching for the first time, although I do have many classes per week. I have built a solid foundation for my teaching and I prepared most of the lessons when I was here for my work experience a year ago.

Could you talk about the open teaching in your college?

When there is an open class, anyone in the college regardless of department or subject can come to observe. They are voluntary. I have just finished teaching an open class this morning. Seven teachers who were from our department and some from the foreign language department observed the class. After the class, I discussed it with some of the teachers separately. We do not have specialised regulations about open classes, but I often do open teaching if I have time, as I think this is a very good way for me to grow professionally. After an open class, [My] colleagues [who observed the teaching] often give me very helpful comments and advice which refreshed and enlightened me.

I think the database of curriculum materials could be a useful part of the Curriculum Development Programme, as some materials in the database are very useful raw materials.

Do you have any training projects?

Yes, we have induction and other training projects. We newly trained teachers receive two training sessions during the July and August before we begin to teach. The training runs in SHNU, and we also have college level and departmental level training. The trainers include teachers from the education college of the SHNU, the Shanghai Theatre Academy and ECNU. They offer us very interesting information, for example on how a teacher communicates with his students, the oral expression of teachers, teaching practice, microteaching and something about psychology!

They might have a system of assessment, but I do not know. I almost forgot to say that we have a teaching skills competition for young teachers including those at college and city level. Also we are encouraged to develop high quality curriculum materials. The college has an online platform for sharing the different teaching materials that our teachers have prepared and used, so that other teachers and students may have opportunities to share.

The College invites the staff of SHNU to train us normally for 2 hours every Friday. This is the departmental regular training courses which were launched for all teacher educators in

our college. Also, the induction scheme often takes place during the summer holidays. It is normally separated into two parts, one is in July, the other is in August, and each part lasts for about 15 days. Sometimes, the trainers are from SHNU. Sometimes the senior teachers in the department get involved in it. Generally, these training courses are very good. They are beneficial to our teaching.

Teachers in their second or third teaching year also receive training, but mostly they take part in training provided by the college and the department.

In the light of the approaches to professional development that you mentioned before, do you have any other techniques for professional development?

I keep reflecting on my teaching. I often record a video of my teaching, and pick one or two classes to watch and then reflect on which aspects are okay and which aspects are poor. Also, I like to get comments from my students at the end of term, and then I sort out the comments to see what I need to adjust.

Did you obtain any support in relation to your professional development?

The college invites the staff from SHNU to provide training, normally for two hours every Friday. The college supports us to engage in some research projects and training projects, such as the Project for Excellent Novice Teachers that supports young teachers' research and training, and so on. Anyway if there are such opportunities the college will fund us to get involved in them.

The college has not published any policy documents to support our professional development, but we have a set of regulations for registration.

What things create problems for your professional development? What issues do you encounter that create obstacles for your professional development?

There are two main issues I encounter that often cause me difficulties. Firstly, my workload is very heavy. This is only a temporary difficulty, as I am undertaking two years of counsellor work which takes up a great deal of time. Secondly, I do not have enough opportunities to go to nurseries. This is very important for our teaching and students' learning. However, the college intends to establish some interactive partnerships with nurseries rather than only for students' work experience.

We are meant to go to the nurseries that have a relationship with our college but we do not. The main reasons for this are because we do not really have time to go. We all have very heavy workloads, and the nurseries are far away from the college. As many teachers, especially most of the young teachers here, act as counsellors, they seldom go to the nurseries. Some cooperative partners are available, but the problem remains that we do not have time to go, because we have to teach, act as counsellors, and take part in meetings. In fact, we have too many students and too few teachers.

How many teachers are there in the Department of Education?

Around 21 staff excluding full time counsellors. Most have a Master degree, three are Ph.Ds. Nobody has only a Bachelor degree.

In terms of your professional development, do you have anything else to add?

I am going to update my degree if I have time and the opportunity, as I am a teacher in a higher education institution, so I need to continue to update my degree to benefit my professional development.

On the other hand, I need to focus on the interaction, discussion, and communication between my students and me in order to ensure effective, high-quality teaching, achieve the aims of the teaching, and demonstrate good teaching practice.

In terms of personal development, what do you need currently?

I hope the department can reduce my workload while I study for my Ph.D.; I hope the department can let me teach one or two courses consistently; I hope the department can find a much more straightforward way to give us information about professional development such as conferences, seminars and so on.

Interview with II 05

Interview time: 9:00-10:23 a.m. 18 April 2013

What are the distinctive areas of knowledge and competencies for teacher educators?

Now there is a saying that teachers do not lack knowledge but do lack competencies, which is ridiculous. If they did not have competencies, where would the knowledge come from? The most important thing for a teacher educator is that he/she should be competent in transforming knowledge into competencies. The most important thing for a teacher educator is that he/she needs to have comprehensive knowledge, so he/she can connect with different subjects and will have a complete knowledge system. For example, I teach Chinese studies, but I have also studied Ancient Chinese philosophy, Chinese history, western philosophy and geography and so on...

Could you talk about your work?

As far as the in-service teacher training system is concerned, most of the teachers are not genuine in coming to the institutions to improve themselves. They only care about the credits that their superior has asked them to get. Their training does not really make the leap from “instruct me to study” to “I want to study”. On the one hand, some school teachers are interested in courses, and they like to pick a course that they feel they will be very good at. As a result, the rest of the courses that few school teachers picked will be cancelled. So the courses in our school follow the principle of survival of the fittest, which is not a bad thing. On the other hand, the training sometimes does not have any obvious effect on the school teachers in the short term. So some teachers do not focus on it. Normally, junior secondary school teachers pay more attention to the training than high school teachers and primary school teachers.

What approaches do you take to your professional development?

My approaches were all about expertise and teaching methods. For example, I taught Chinese literacy at university, and I joined the training project on Chinese literacy. At that time, the experts had very basic knowledge, unlike today. I was always enterprising, therefore I often thought and discussed with my classmates and colleagues. So my improvement in Chinese literacy was mainly due to my own activity. If I was instructed to attend the project itself, I would say that I had a small child who needed to be taken care

of, so I could not go.

The five-year cycle of training was terminated at the end of the 1990s. Actually, I always liked self-directed study. Sometimes I would go to the Institute of Teacher Education in Shanghai to participate in many professional development activities, such as examination analysis, teaching discussions and so on.

Since 2000, I have developed two courses – *Interpretation of ancient Chinese novels* and *Studies in Ancient Chinese civilisation* – taking advantage of my expertise. This was a wonderful thinking and reflective process, which greatly increased my professional development; and these two courses are really welcomed by the in-service teachers.

I seldom communicate with schools and school teachers, as my main work is in training in-service teachers. I communicate with school teachers mainly through the training projects that I undertake. I meet many school teachers, and sometimes we discuss interesting questions in our subject areas.

I communicated with schools when I worked as an editor for local government. To get some information, I had to go to those schools and communicate with head teachers and school teachers.

At the beginning of my teacher educator career, I had opportunities to involve myself in training projects in normal universities, such as SHNU, ECNU etc. but that was not a requirement but voluntary.

What difficulties do you encounter in the course of your professional development?

I do not have a positive attitude towards the reform of teacher education, as all reforms of education are subject to politics. I believe the political system is the biggest bar to the reforms of teacher education.

I worked as an editor for the education authority for several years, which meant I spent a lot of time without professional development. So I always lack the opportunities and a proper platform for professional development.

In terms of personal development, what do you need currently?

As I teach two courses currently, I hope I will be able to continue teaching as long as I am able to, although I will have to retire eventually.

Interview with II 06

Interview time: 8:40-9:30 p.m. 16 April 2013

What are the distinctive areas of knowledge and competencies for teacher educators?

Many school teachers have very high degrees and a number of people with Masters, as well as Ph.Ds work in schools. So we teaching researchers are under a lot of pressure. Apart from this, I think we have a distinct advantage in that we are good at researching teaching methods and we have a lot of teaching experience, which is just what the school teachers, especially the novices who have worked for only a few years, do not have.

I think I have knowledge and experience, both theoretical and practical. I have experienced teaching from theory to practice, and sometimes even from practice to theory. This is a big advantage that distinguishes me from the school teachers. A teacher educator not only needs to have knowledge and experience both theoretically and practically, but also to have experienced teaching from theory to practice, and sometimes even from practice to theory.

Could you talk about your work?

I mainly guide the teaching of school teachers. Actually, a teaching researcher also needs to teach in the classroom to demonstrate to school teachers. This is called *Xiashuike*... They need to guide teachers on how to teach in the classroom, in a way which not only shows their own teaching ideas, but also indicates where they are leading their teachers.

On the one hand, I need to know about the current situation in relation to English teaching; on the other hand, I need to explore the effectiveness of English teaching in the classroom. Although there are many types of teaching styles and many teaching ideas are emerging, I still focus on the effectiveness of teaching, as it is the core value of teaching.

What approaches do you take to your professional development?

Most of them are organised by the head of my institution, the SMEC. The national range of activities is not very large and was only provided twice, in 2007 and 2008. The activities that I participate in are mainly organised by the Shanghai Teacher Training Centre (STTC) at city level. The STTC has provided a lot of training for teaching researchers, which is very beneficial. Sometimes, the STTC organises training with the Institute of Teaching Research of SMEC (ITR). Most of the activities that are organised by the STTC are very

relevant and focus on theories, whilst those organised by the ITR mainly focus on teaching practice. The ITR often sends teaching researchers to participate in classes at city level, while the STTC often holds lectures, seminars and so on. So I think it would be great if could blend them together.

What other types of activities that do not contribute directly to your professional development do you participate in?

Generally, I do not participate in activities that are not about professional development. I always take part in many professional development activities. For example, we have an inspection each term which is of course about professional development. Also, Each Monday, we have a professional learning meeting; each Tuesday, we organise teaching research activities in different subjects in different schools; on Wednesday and Thursday, we observe teaching in specific schools; and on Friday, we have a Collective Inspection and Research in certain schools.

Can you say more about the collective inspection and research project?

Generally, a CIR is called for by the schools rather than our institution. As you know, each school has its own problems that need to be identified by experts. We just have the responsibility to help them. Therefore, our institution will organise teaching researchers from different subjects to go to the school, if it wants this.

Do you often communicate with your colleagues?

Not very often, I relatively often get in touch with those who are in the same subject and the same grade, but seldom communicate with those in other subjects and grades.

Do you often communicate with schools and school teachers?

[Yes], very often. I communicate with school teachers very often. We have close relationships. Also, we have opportunities to visit schools. Actually, we are in short supply. We have already received 8 applications that all want us go to visit them next term, but we can only go to 4 –5 schools (this term). For example, I am an English teaching researcher, so I sometimes go to a school to advice on English teaching there. However, sometimes I go with my colleagues who are in different subject areas, such as Chinese, mathematics,

physics, chemistry, geography, politics, and history and so on. Usually Chinese, English and mathematics teaching researchers go to a school together, as these three subjects are the main and compulsory subjects in the Chinese education system, and for the college and high school entrance examinations. So in terms of English, we have a full diary for every Friday next term. I think I am a snail: even though I carry a heavy burden that makes me walk slowly, I still keep walking.

What approaches do you take to your professional development?

We are trained in the STTC through lectures and participating in seminars. In addition, our institution often invites experts to offer training. For example, we always listen to experts on professional learning activities every Monday in our institution. I felt the lectures were brilliant for my PD as they focused on professional ideas at a very high level. So sometimes I go outside for professional development, sometimes lecturers come to me.

I also engage in a good deal of self-directed study and self-reflection. Self-study, reflection and enlightenment are very helpful for PD when I listen to the experts and observe teaching. Directing teachers' teaching in schools often involves learning from teachers. When I direct teachers' teaching, I can find many new ideas and problems, and then sort them out, and I in turn apply them to my direction in schools and deal with them as training materials for school teachers. Therefore it is very helpful and a win-win situation

Which approaches are your favourite?

I favour the seminars that are usually organised by the STTC and ITR, in which we can discuss and share experiences. After the discussion, we often form a group, and apply what we have discussed in the seminar in practice, and then we report the findings and results.

Did you obtain any support in relation to your professional development?

Generally, support is through the system of awards. There are some awards for head teachers and high quality teachers available. Previously, we teaching researchers did not have opportunities to be assessed, as we are teaching researchers and mentors rather than school teachers and do not teach in the classroom. Since 2009, the award scheme has been opened to teaching researchers. What qualities should a high quality teacher and a head teacher have? That is the standard and requirements for teaching researchers' professional development. Therefore we brought the requirements into focus and make them a clear

target for professional development.

Furthermore, I know there are award schemes for high quality teachers and head teachers that are organised by the SMEC. SMEC has set out a list of requirements for being a high quality teacher or head teacher. However, I found there is a problem with the age limitations that set in 1970, which are not helpful for many teacher educators. For example, I was born in 1969, so I would be rejected.

What are the factors that influence your professional development, including positive and negative factors?

Every coin has two sides. The regulations are meant to improve teachers' initiative and sense of competition, but sometimes they give rise to misunderstandings. For example, it is not fair on some of the teacher educators in my school, as the committee prefers to give opportunities to the teaching researchers that teach the main subjects rather than those who teach subjects which do not feature in the college or high school entrance examinations. However, it is known that each teacher has done his or her best and we are all teacher educators in the same institution.

I think the salary factor is also very important for professional development. The salary situation in some districts of Shanghai is similar. Our salary as teaching researchers is much lower than that of school teachers. Although for some of us it is higher than a school teacher's salary, it is certainly not much more. The salary of some school teachers who teach the older classes or main subjects is always higher than ours, but we teaching researchers cannot believe that the responsibilities they have are much greater than ours.

What difficulties do you encounter in the course of your professional development?

We do not really have time for professional development. As I mentioned before, we teaching researchers have an overloaded calendar, so I do not have time to read and think during working days. I have to carry out self-directed study during the summer or winter holidays. As a result, there is a new issue. As I do not have time to read, think or write, how can I calm down and complete a research project or write articles? If I am in a rush to complete them, as you can imagine, the quality of the work will be very poor.

Several years ago, the former head of the institution established a project for professional development for teaching researchers. I thought it was wonderful. He announced an academic summer holiday for us, so that we had more than a month in which we could stay in the library, and calm ourselves down. We had enough time to think, rethink, and then

complete some very high quality articles. However, recently we have no thought of writing high quality articles; actually, we only have thoughts of completing the task that our superior has assigned to us. We are meant to do it well, but we really do not have time. Here is an example. In the fourth week of this term, we were inspecting in a school and we needed to complete a report on the inspection. We then spent a full week supporting another school in the fifth week, and in the sixth week, we had to submit the report. You can imagine that we did not have time to think and write before the sixth week. How can we finish a high quality report that will be published and handed out to all the teachers and head teachers in the district, which of course will strongly impact on all the teachers, schools and students, with so little time?

In terms of personal development, what do you need currently?

Everything: time, funding [laugh]. Actually, time is the most needed. If you gave me much more time, I could do it better.

I think teaching researchers are the link between higher education institutions and school teachers. I think some so-called experts like to talk about obscure theories that are important to them rather than us. Why do some scholars from ECNU like to cooperate in research projects with us and the school teachers? The reasons they stated last time are that they had never published a book which had had a significant influence among teachers and students, as the books they have published are not practical. They thought their research was lacking a foundation in front line teaching practice, although the books had theoretical depth. The teachers on the front line are not really looking for theoretical knowledge; they like to collect teaching case studies. So I think that the best method for professional development is to bring these two together.

There are several pilot bases that have been set up since last semester, such as *Mingde* School, which is an experimental base for our institution, and was set up on behalf of the district school with many key teachers. This type of school is also in charge of training teachers, and sometimes experts are invited to give lectures. Therefore, it will be a good means of bringing theory and practice together.

In addition, a school teacher actually has two mentors; one is in the school, and the other is a teaching researcher. Teachers can enjoy excellent resources in the pilot base schools, as special grade teachers and university experts are often asked to train school teachers.

Interview with FG01

Interview time: 2:30-3:25p.m. 2 April 2013

What would you describe your professional roles?

I am a university teacher doing research and teaching. I value them both equally. So I have two roles: a university teacher and a researcher. If I had to select one role, I would say that I am a teacher in a research university. (FG01a)

I am a researcher and a promoter of modern education. I mainly explore and advocate the basic features of modern education in my professional areas. I think this is the most urgent task for China's education and society. (FG01b)

I am like a designer, as teacher educators are the people who decide the direction of China's education. Also, as we know, education needs to be well planned, and I think teacher educators have a role here. (FG01d)

I think teacher educators should be educationalists. I have a similar view to D, because I believe that teacher educators should decide the future direction of China's education. (FG01c)

What are the distinctive areas of knowledge and competencies for teacher educators?

I think education management requires wide fields of knowledge. I develop education policies, so for me knowledge of management, economics, sociology, political science and knowledge of the process of government policy are most useful. (FG01a)

As an educational researcher, I need to have a broad knowledge base. On this basis, the humanities and knowledge of social sciences are more important, because education firstly focuses on human beings and human society. Of course, scientific and technological knowledge is also very important. (FG01b)

I think different professional teacher educators may have different professional knowledge. For me, I think knowledge of subject content, research methods and teaching methods for teacher educators are more important. For a teacher educator, He/she [A teacher educator] needs to have a wider range of knowledge and a deeper knowledge of the subject matter [than school teachers]... he/she also needs to have international perspectives and knowledge of education and psychology. (FG01c)

According to my experience over the years, I think teaching students how to learn and think are the most important things. (FG01d)

Could you talk about your work?

Some trivial things occupy my time and energy. (FG01b)

I think both time and policy support from the university and department, as well as the research platform. (FG01c)

I believe that both collective collaboration and team support are most important. (FG01d)

What approaches do you take to your professional development?

I have engaged in some administrative work, and participated in the formulation of government policy processes, therefore I understand the importance of administrative management. In addition, I have visited schools and participated in some scientific research activities in the schools, which helped my understanding for the M.Ed. students.

University teacher professional development is about improving teaching and scientific research. I mainly rely on my own efforts, rather than *Chuanbangdai* (mentor of senior university teachers) so I attend relevant academic conferences and reflect on how to teach my students. If there was a mentor system and a platform of research, that would be the most effective. In fact, we need mentors who genuinely know how to direct us. (FG01a)

I participate in professional practice activities which include: (a) teaching undergraduate and postgraduate students (b) taking part in all kinds of domestic and international academic seminars (c) visiting Germany for a year (d) classroom observations in secondary schools. I think the above professional practice activities are all very important. However, (a) is the most important.

The university permitted me to visit Germany for one year; the department provides a good platform for research; and I have also benefited from the flexible management system. My efforts are focused mainly on the research issues that I am interested in and I study these consistently. I have not chased the fashionable issues.

The approaches that improve my professional development are mainly self-directed study and learning from experts and senior teachers. In my opinion, self-directed study is more effective. (FG01b)

I agree with Professor B. I think the most important thing for my professional development is teaching, because to teach well, I need to spend a lot of time preparing lessons. This involves knowledge review, and is also a reflective process. Teaching requires the interaction of knowledge and reflection; therefore, it is very helpful. I really agree with you both. (FG01c)

In my view, the interaction with school teachers is the most important thing, because I can understand how teachers teach and how they impart knowledge to their students. I too have mainly relied on self-directed study during these past few years. I guide many novice teacher educators who are developing quickly, so the mentor system is very important. (FG01d)

Did you obtain any support in relation to your professional development?

The university attaches great importance to scientific research; the department of scientific research management publish research information regularly, and set up a small amount of funds which are competitive – I am lucky to have won some support. My department has organised the communication of scientific research to young people, to improve young teachers, but it's not for me, a senior teacher. (FG01a)

The department offered me a mentor who gives me a great deal of help. In addition, the department supports us to apply for research projects collectively, so I have opportunities to engage in them, which is helpful. (FG01a, c)

The university gives us a lot of support. (FG01d)

I agree with you all. (FG01e)

What difficulties do you encounter in the course of your professional development?

Unfortunately, different universities have different styles: different research platforms, as well as different management styles. In addition, my colleagues pay attention to different areas, so there are many insurmountable difficulties, including the lack of strong team support and attention to major issues etc., which the university seems unable to overcome. (FG01a)

In the process of professional development, sometimes I enter into a bottleneck period and plateau. Therefore I need constantly to expand my horizons, expand my ideas and absorb new resources to maintain the power of professional development. To overcome these, of course, I mainly rely on my own efforts. (FG01b)

I sometimes feel that it is hard to succeed in applying for research projects, because I am a young teacher and I do not have as much experience and qualifications as senior teachers. However, promotion is linked to research performance. So the lower the performance, the lesser the job title and thus a vicious cycle is formed. (FG01c)

I still think our team is not close enough. (FG01d)

In terms of personal development, what do you need currently?

I hope I could have the opportunity to conduct national level [educational] research projects. (FG01a)

I hope that I can be supported by a good professional team. (FG01e)

I hope I can obtain more research projects and publish more articles. (FG01c)

I hope I can continue to remain in my post and educate more outstanding students. (FG01d)

Interview with FG02

Interview time: 3.30-5.25 p.m. 28 March 2013

What are the distinctive areas of knowledge and competencies for teacher educators?

I think that as a teacher educator, I not only need to have the knowledge in textbooks, but also the knowledge that comes from the practice of teaching. The schools do not welcome so-called experts' lectures that are not practical. So I believe student teachers should firstly go to schools to know what is happening in schools and what the schools want. Even though subject knowledge is very important, knowing how to transform this into knowledge that students can accept easily is much more important. (FG02a)

Could you talk about your work?

I have to undertake administration, and I teach postgraduates, undergraduates and a class of adults, as well as training key teachers and head teachers. In addition, I supervise some postgraduates in the Department of Education. (FG02a)

So FG02a is mainly in charge of administration and secondarily teaches and does some minor tasks. As far as I am concerned, I teach undergraduates and public courses for students who are not in the programmes of teacher education. I also supervise postgraduates, and organise the placement of student teachers in schools. (FG02c)

Apart from all of the roles that have been mentioned above, I also teach students in pre-school education. The normal workload of the teacher in SHNU is eight classes per week, but I have double this amount. I think that, as a teacher educator, I not only need to know about the knowledge in textbooks, but also the knowledge that comes from practice. The schools do not welcome the alleged experts' lectures that are not down-to-earth. So I believe, student teachers should firstly go to schools to know what things are happening in schools and what the schools want. Even though the knowledge of the subject matter is very important, knowing how to transfer this knowledge to the knowledge that the students can accept easily is much more important. (FG02b)

In addition to teaching, research and administration, do you often go to schools?

Yes, I go to the secondary schools, primary schools and teacher training schools quite often. I often co-operate with them on research projects, and I often observe teaching and

discuss teaching with the school teachers. Sometimes, the head teachers and teacher training schools invite me to participate in their activities. Currently, the Department of Education requests that we must have at least one year's experience of practice in schools. Otherwise, we will lose opportunities for promotion. (FG02a)

I went to a primary school in Pudong District previously. I was in charge of instructing them on how to assess teaching and how to do research and so on. (FG02b)

When did the requirements take effect?

Last year. The government and the university promote the practice within schools, and it is a mandatory regulation for teacher educators. Our current principal also attaches importance to it. (FG02a, b, c)

Do you regularly and professionally communicate with school teachers?

Yes, I do it very often. (FG02a)

I teach students in the M.Ed. programme, who are all school teachers. They often consult me on different issues that they have recently come across so we have many opportunities to exchange thoughts and ideas. (FG02c)

Basically, they always contact us if they want to. (FG02a, b, c)

We often cooperate with each other on a number of the research projects, so we get in touch very often. (FG02c)

Do you often discuss issues with your colleagues professionally?

We discuss issues less than when I was in the same office as FG02c. (FG02a)

All the discussions were spontaneous, as there was not a fixed system saying what we needed to do. I think private discussion is much more effective than formal discussion which is organised by the department or the college, because private discussion is very relaxed and done voluntarily. (FG02b)

There are very few discussions among colleagues. I think discussion is up to each individual, because if you have similar interests and habits of teaching or research, even personal matters, you will communicate more often. (FG02c)

I found there is an important factor which influences discussion. If you often work in your office, you will have many opportunities to discuss issues with your colleagues. It will be very hard to have a talk with those who teach in the university but work at home. So discussions are mainly subject to the work style of university teachers. (FG02b)

We exchange ideas in relation to teacher education, placements and the future of student teachers. The exchange is normally very informal. We seldom book special time slots for conversations. (FG02a)

What approaches do you adopt for your professional development routinely?

I adopt self-directed study. I adopt self-study, I read books and inquire into research projects for as long as I want to, and I keep reading cutting edge knowledge as long as there is time. (FG02b)

What external factors influence your professional development?

Almost no external factors, I think, as it is different from the situation ten years ago. (FG02b)

The main feature is individual research; everyone researches in his own way. My professional development is mainly subject to my self-directed study. I read books, gather data, write up articles, and work on research projects by myself. Sometimes I work on some projects with the senior professors, which really benefits me a lot. For example, recently I assisted Professor H who is a senior professor in teacher education. We worked on a research project about the professional development of teachers in higher education. I reviewed a lot of literature, which really widened my view. In brief, my professional development mainly depends on self-directed study, and I occasionally cooperate with colleagues and school teachers on certain research projects. (FG02c)

I often study by myself, and participate in many conferences to keep up to date with current research progress. In addition, I often go into schools as a teacher educator. (FG02a)

We like to listen to the lectures given by domestic and international scholars that are organised by our university, which really contribute to our professional development. (FG02c)

What things have been done by your university and your superior for your professional development?

The training that is organised by the university has continually increased. Prior to the induction, we only had one day's training, but at the moment, the induction in our university has been extended to one year. Previously, novices began to teach on their first day, however nowadays they can't teach unless they have completed the teaching instruction by the senior teachers which lasts for at least half a year at the moment. The university also has a centre for the professional development of all teachers which is organised by Professor H and governed by the Human Resource Department of the University. (FG02a)

I had only been trained for three days when I was a beginner teacher here. (FG02c)

Actually you were trained for only one day. (FG02a)

I remembered the deputy principal of the university came and gave a lecture to us and some very young and promising scholars talked to us. After one day of training, I was given a mentor for my professional development. (FG02c)

The university emphasises the training of teachers. As you know, many new teachers have just completed their Ph.Ds and work in the university. They neither have teaching experience, nor know what teaching methods are. So if the university let them teach without any training, it would be irresponsible to both the novice and the university. (FG02a)

The University also has an inspection system which comprises some retired university professors and associate professors. They go to classrooms without any advance warning, observe teachers teaching and offer a detailed assessment. I have been observed once, and I felt the feedback was very useful for me. (FG02c)

In addition, all the leaders of departments, colleges and the university have the responsibility of observing teaching in classrooms. The third form of inspection is the experts' inspection. This inspection consists of experts in certain teaching or research fields who are entrusted by the university to observe teaching and supervise the quality of education. (FG02a)

There is a sound system of observation of teaching in each department. All records must be completed for the office of teaching affairs and the office of the colleges. For example, I am the leader of the teaching projects for undergraduates. I have the duty to observe three to five examples of teaching and give feedback to the teachers. (FG02c)

Teachers cannot treat teaching lightly at the moment, as the system of inspection has been

made stronger than ever before. (FG02b)

Teachers cannot be late to any lesson. [Otherwise], it counts as a “teaching incident”. (FG02a)

Someone has told me that most universities in China emphasise academic research rather than teaching. What do you think of that?

In order to balance academic research and teaching, the university announced a policy that teaching results can count as the equivalent of the results of academic research, and in return, the results of academic research can equal teaching results. The university set up a committee on teaching and curriculum for assessing teachers’ teaching. If you have an excellent performance in teaching, you can become a professor in teaching equal to a professor in a research field. Shanghai has carried out a project for inspiring key teachers, which provides funds for teachers who have good performances in teaching as much as for those who are good at research. (FG02a)

Research was absolutely emphasised in the past, but since last year its status has begun to be reduced. (FG02b)

Different types of teachers have different emphases, such as research-oriented teachers, teaching-oriented teachers and teaching research-oriented teachers and so on. Generally, research-oriented teachers and teaching research-oriented teachers need to spend more time on research. (FG02a)

Does the university and the college or department have any measures for the professional development of teachers who have passed the induction stage?

There are three kinds of measures for us: firstly, the university has Innovative Groups, including teaching groups and research groups. The university provides abundant funding for this. Secondly, the university has a project named Professional Leadership that means teachers’ professional development is led by some experts. For example, an academic can be invited to lead a project or a team and construct a platform for the professional development of those teachers who have the same research interests. Thirdly, the university carried out a project known as the ‘Project of Special Areas for Talented Teachers’. This project aims to attract more and more talented teachers to work in SHNU. (FG02a)

Are you satisfied with your personal development?

No, I spend too much time on administration and too little time on my personal development. (FG02a)

No, I am not satisfied with *Keshifei* (pay for each class). As the *Keshifei* is too low, I have to teach so many classes, because I want to have a relatively high quality of family life. Now is not the time to earn a wage to live on by writing articles. Because of this, I always have a very heavy workload, and I feel very tired. If I did not teach so much, the quality of family life would reduce. (FG02b)

I am satisfied with my personal development. On the one hand, the platform in Shanghai is very good for me. I have a lot of opportunities to widen my horizons. On the other hand, I am a young teacher educator in SHNU and SHNU has provided a lot of opportunities for me. In addition, if I work hard and actively, there are so many opportunities waiting for me. However, as a university teacher in Shanghai, I am under huge pressure, including teaching pressures, research pressures and life pressures and so on. Even though there are some opportunities, I have to depend on myself. (FG02c)

What difficulties do you encounter in the course of your personal development?

There is a conflict in my professional development over whether I should insist on my research interests or keep focusing on practical issues. For example, I cannot balance cultural and educational practice. I think that solving these practical issues is my responsibility. The most troublesome thing is administration. I have changed position seven times. I am perplexed about my personal development, as I have so many ideas which have not been put into practice. In general, I cannot do the things that I want to and I am doing the things that I do not want to. (FG02a)

Although I do not have administrative work, I still do not have enough time for my personal development, as I am always distracted by so many trifles. I cannot give up any research, teaching or teaching research, because I wish to have a high quality of family life. (FG02c)

Each staff member in the university needs to select an administrative position, a teaching research position or a teaching position. If I choose the administrative position and I do not give up the research position I will have to carry out one year of administration for free. It also means I add an extra workload for myself, because in that case I not only must carry out management, but also need to teach, do research and so on. In my heart, the latter is my interest and direction. (FG02a)

I have not stopped my scientific research, even though I have so many classes. I often prepare lessons at home and at nights. (FG02b)

As far as I am concerned, I have one meeting every two weeks. Teaching and research takes up most of my time. I can't give up any activities in [educational] research, teaching and teaching research, because I wish to [make more money to] have a high quality of family life. (FG02c)

The university and college often ask us to do something which is not on our agenda. So we are often disturbed when we are working. (FG02b)

We teachers do some part-time jobs, which also use up our energy. (FG02c)

Professional development is not professionalisation; therefore teachers should have some autonomy. Actually, we are now often controlled by external factors [such as, meetings, management business]. (FG02a)

I know that some of our colleagues often feel anxious when so many things are piling up. Each of us hopes that we can have good personal development, but actually we come across so many problems. (FG02c)

Interview with FG03

Interview time: 1.30-2.40 p.m. 22 March 2013

What are the distinctive areas of knowledge and competencies for teacher educators?

We teach our students teaching skills, and then our students apply these skills to teach children in nurseries. I think the main point is how to study creatively and apply what is learned. (FG03a)

I feel that it is very difficult to teach students who were born in the 1990s. Sometimes, I have to stop teaching and bring them to order, and when they are calm, I can continue teaching. I think it is important to adopt the right methods for learning and living. As long as they understand how to adopt these methods and they are willing to learn, the teaching will be effective. So sometimes I would rather put off imparting knowledge. I teach them first how to be an effective person, how to be a confident and positive person. I think this is the key to teaching. (FG03b)

To a professional teacher, teaching expertise is not the difficult thing. But the students lack a sense of responsibility, patience, generosity and care. We professionals cannot stop our main tasks in order to instruct them on aspects outside our duties. (FG03c)

I think we mainly help them through teaching theory, hoping that they can grow rapidly. If I was a nursery teacher, I believe I could not teach well. I think a teacher educator should firstly know her students. As long as she knows her students, she can teach them well. For a teacher educator, teaching not only demonstrates oral expression, but also demonstrates how to teach. For our student teachers, knowledge can be acquired gradually, but the passion for teaching and children and a sense of patience are very important. Because of long-standing issues in family and social education, it is very difficult to teach our student teachers. (FG03e)

A teacher educator firstly needs to have confidence, patience and love. I do not mean to say a teacher educator should be loved, but he at least needs to let his students like him. So we need to be sympathetic, showing our inner thoughts, qualities, potential and so on. Once we have confidence and a positive attitude, teaching knowledge is not a difficult thing to come by. (FG03b)

We need to be patient with our students so that they feel our charisma as a teacher. (FG03c)

In relation to adults, a teacher educator should know about psychology, methods of thought and the professional career of student teachers. Teacher educators cultivate student

teachers' practical wisdom based on such types of knowledge. (FG03a)

Could you talk about your work?

I taught undergraduates in another university – Jiangxi Normal University. Now, I teach pre-school education to college students who will be nursery teachers in most districts of Shanghai. At this time, our college is expanding the scale of enrolment, which means that the number of graduates will increase. In addition, there are a few students from the regions outside Shanghai who will go back to their own regions. (FG03a)

I teach students the basic theory of music and singing. In addition, I sometimes lead social clubs, exchange activities, military cooperation, and exchanges with visiting groups. (FG03c)

We are all a little bit different. (FG03b)

We (FG03d, FG03e) are actually similar. After you, please...

Well, we both teach the theory of pre-school education and guide student teachers in professional practice. (FG03b)

We each offer two professional courses every term. One is about learning theory, the other is about practice. In addition, we need to be counsellors for at least three years at the beginning of our teaching careers. (FG03e)

We all studied for Master Degrees from the universities. (FG03d)

Apart from this, we tend to carry out some projects for the department, and these are a requirement. Sometimes we guide the students' professional activities, and lead our students when they go to nurseries for their work experience. (FG03e)

We also need to *Guzhi Duanlian* [undertake secondments] in the nurseries, which means we do full-time teaching as nurseries teachers in nursery schools and get a salary from our college. (FG03d)

This is a distinctive type of cooperation between the college and nurseries. (FG03b)

I worked full-time in a nursery for one term, but she only worked there for one month and had to give it up, as she got pregnant. (FG03d)

Does every teacher in each subject need to go on secondment?

Yes, we take it in turns. This project is to ensure we are familiar with the real demands of the nurseries and improve teaching in nurseries for student teachers in the future. (FG03b)

It should be like this, but actually we have not finished the first cycle. (FG03c)

At this point, I have two questions. One is whether being a counsellor is mandatory for each of you?

It is required of the novices who have just graduated from university and are probationers. (FG03d, e)

In terms of the college, it is very special, as we teach college level student teachers. Universities perhaps do not have this requirement. (FG03b)

No, the requirements are the same. (FG03a, c, e)

[Because] our college is careful of that we should care about the students' security, studies and thoughts. (FG03c)

This project is helpful for both the new teacher educators and student teachers: we grow up together. We get to know about the new situations of our students in the process of being a counsellor. It is also helpful for improving our communication skills. But as we know, we do twice as much work at that time, and therefore we feel very tired. (FG03b)

The second question: is it a requirement for teacher educators to involve themselves in research projects?

No, we have a lot of opportunities to do research, including research projects at city and district level and so on. Some teachers who have interests and who are keen to do research projects may be involved in them. It totally depends on the teachers as they can make their own choices according to their subjects and interests. (FG03e)

Given the discussion above, I can understand that you spend a lot of time on teaching, management and research. Which part takes up most of your time?

Teaching! Must be! (All)

Well, when and where do you prepare your lessons?

Generally, we prepare them at home, as our college has not implemented *Zuoban* [the attendance regulation] which means we do not have to remain in the college during the working day if we have no classes. (All)

They are the teaching staff here, so they do not need to remain in college. But we administrators have to remain in the college during the working day. (FG03b)

Well, how and when do you take part in discussions within the same subject group?

Our college invites the experts in many specific fields from ECNU and SHNU to give us lectures. The lectures generally take place in the early Friday afternoon, and last about 2 hours. Every teacher is welcome. (FG03c)

That is the meeting of all teachers in the department. We also have some small-scale meetings with colleagues in the same subjects. (FG03b)

We usually have a meeting every two weeks. (FG03a)

Apart from teaching, what other professional activities do you take part in?

I guide students' graduating performances. (FG03c)

I guide student placements in nurseries and get feedback. (FG03d)

Attendance of teaching competitions (FG03c)

Sometimes I take part in conferences outside my college, but I will consider their relevance to my interests. For example, I am interested in education for children from birth to three years old, if there are conferences in relation to this, I will not hesitate to participate, but I seldom pay attention to other fields. The activities normally focus on training for school teachers. Most of them take place in Shanghai. (FG03e)

What approaches do you take to your professional development?

For example, the secondments that I just mentioned, getting feedback and information on work experience for student teachers and the research projects and so on. (FG03c)

Reading, skimming webpages, and so on (FG03b)

When communicating with student teachers, you can obtain a lot of new knowledge, especially from their thoughts which can help you understand and adapt well to students. As the students' situation changes each year, teacher educators can communicate with different students and get fresh ideas from them, which can be very helpful to their teaching. (FG03d)

I think there is a deep generation gap between myself and them (student teachers). (FG03e)

I did not adapt well to the new environment at the beginning of my teaching career in this college. (FG03d)

I feel that current students and previous students are different. In addition, the feedback from the employers (nurseries) is that the students are different every year, which raises many new demands on our teaching ideas and methods. Seminars about cooperation between teacher education and the workplace strongly influence our professional development. In contrast to the knowledge we obtained from university, this is a new way to build knowledge. Actually, our thoughts and views have changed a lot since these began, because it is different from the period when we were postgraduate students at the university, as the training targets have changed. (FG03d)

I usually contact nurseries and regularly visit them to observe the teaching and discuss issues with nursery teachers. (FG03a)

We have some partner nurseries. Normally we consider the distance, and we prefer those that are close to our college, so that it is convenient for our students to visit. Visits to nurseries should normally match recent teaching content. For example, I go to a crèche and an early year teaching centre once a week. But there are no regulations, so it is casual and spontaneous. You may go on a visit if you want; it is not a requirement. (FG03e)

What types of approach to your PD are the most effective in the process of changing from a novice to a skilled teacher educator?

I think scientific research combined with practice is very effective. (FG03e)

I hope my professional skills can be improved. However, the college does not provide me with a platform for this. As you can imagine, if we improve, our students benefit. So my efforts should be backed up by the support of the college. (FG03c)

In fact, Learning from the experts is a very good approach to our PD. I remember that we had a very informed expert, Professor W, who is a senior professor in pre-school education. We have learnt a lot from him. If we have experts' direction, we will improve rapidly.

(FG03b)

Professor W used to organise many professional learning activities, such as the book reading club, where we could share experiences of reading different books in relation to our subject matter. (FG03e)

Yes, learning from the experts is a very good approach to our professional development. (All)

In many senses, it depends on reflections and group discussion, because we will have opportunities to share our different thoughts and ideas. (FG03d)

So my method for professional development is scientific research, practice and reflection. (FG03c)

Guazhi Duanlian is a very good method for PD which few sectors can easily take advantage of. What have we done? We went to the nurseries, and taught as nursery teachers. Our college still paid us. Sometimes, we got more out of it than when we worked in the college. We worked there generally for half a year, we learnt a lot from this activity. (FG03e)

In addition, we can borrow from advanced international and external experiences. (FG03b)

You have discussed some methods for PD that is self-directed. How about external direction, such as support from your college, or the SMEC? Have they done anything for your PD?

The college has provided many opportunities for research projects. So if teacher educators want to do this work, their applications will be approved. We are always planning to send our teachers overseas, but we have not sent anyone yet. We also intend to strive for opportunities to have our own voice in national conferences. (FG03b)

Taking part in secondments is a very good means of achieving professional development

We also have many partner nurseries. (FG03b)

Are you satisfied with your professional development?

To be honest, we are satisfied. Sometimes, we have expectations in our mind, but we know these cannot be fulfilled by the college. In particular, we have a major concern that the decrease in enrolment every year will influence our future employment, especially that of

the young teachers. We also hope our salary can be increased. (FG03c)

Our wages have not increased in the past decade. We teachers, especially young teachers, are from outside Shanghai. You know the cost of living in Shanghai, so we are urgently calling for an increase in wages. (FG03b)

What difficulties do you encounter in the course of your PD?

We have a problem in working with our students. I think this is mainly due to their quality, because even though teacher educators advise them seriously, and we rack our brains to teach them, they still do not want to listen. They do not know the difference between what they are able to do and what they want to do. (FG03c)

They think that they can do nothing, but get everything. Students always want to get something for nothing. (FG03e)

They always want teachers to let them pass the exams easily when the exams are approaching. (FG03c)

I think students lack the right attitude for active learning. (FG03d)

Also, they do not have a clear learning target. But we should think about what the nurseries want and connect that with our teaching. In addition, we need to know what our students want through understanding their views. (FG03c)

It is very difficult to teach the practice of the subject, as our students lack any initiative for learning. Their aims for their learning are to pass the exams. (FG03e)

Our understanding is different from that of our students. So we sometimes have no idea how to understand them. (FG03d)

In terms of personal development, what do you need currently?

We need many more opportunities. Although there is a contradiction, as we will be very tired if we are training as well as teaching so many students. (FG03e)

If possible, the best training is off the job. We hope our college can support us in this. (FG03c)

I hope we can have opportunities to engage in international or domestic conferences. (FG03a)

In the light of the time constraints, teachers cannot take too much time [for professional development activities]. If possible, it is better to organise many professional seminars and conferences in different districts of Shanghai, so that it will be easy for us to engage in them. If possible, the best [opportunity] would be off-job training. (FG03e)

Interview with FG04

Interview time: 2.30-3:40 p.m. 24 April 2013

What are the distinctive areas of knowledge and competencies for teacher educators?

Our advantages lie in teaching educational theory better than school teachers. For example, I received a degree from Britain. I have so-called international views, and different views on subjects. However, school teachers have a distinctive advantage with long-term experiences that we don't have, which we do not have. For example, I cannot teach teaching methods to my students, as I do not have experience of teaching in schools. In short, we are good at teaching theories while they are good at practising the theories. (FG04c)

We teachers can be divided into two categories: those who have been trained in education and those who have not. I received a degree in children's literacy. Since I have worked as a teacher educator in the department, I have found that, even though the teachers and students work very hard, their thinking is sometimes limited in the education field, but I am able to think more broadly in my study field. Children's literacy provides me with a new way of thinking and teaching, which sometimes helps me to find a new way to solve problems when we have some contradictory opinions. (FG04d)

Could you talk about your work?

I have seldom done research studies, since last May when I started here. I am an assistant lecturer and not familiar with research. I think the most important thing for me is to carry out good teaching. So I haven't engaged myself in any research projects. However, I got a Master's degree overseas which is not a taught programme but rather a research programme. I hope I could commence research studies in 2–3 years' time when I have had time and teaching experience. (FG04c)

Do you work as a counsellor or carry out administration?

We used to be counsellors and some of us still act as counsellors. [In our college,] the work of counsellors is looked at as being the same as the work of administration. The reason why we worked or are working as counsellors is that this experience is essential for promotion. (FG04d)

It is also because we have a large number of students, and the number of administrators is too small. So we have to be part-time counsellors. (FG04e)

How many students are there in the Department of Education?

Over 1, 000, and the number of students are gradually increasing. We have four grades, ten classes and fifty students in each class. We run undergraduate programmes including pre-school education, art education and primary education. (FG04a)

Do you often communicate with the nurseries?

Yes, but not very much, especially since I have been working. I contacted the nurseries many times when I studied in the university. (FG04a)

I get in touch with nurseries often, as I am a mother. I expect to get information from nurseries through opportunities such as parents' meetings, children's performances, evening parties, open days and communications with teachers and other parents. Frankly, I do not have enough time to look after my kids myself. In this, I am not a good mother, but I am a good teacher educator in the college, as I get a lot of information that lets me know what the nurseries want us to do and what the new trends in pre-school education are. (FG04b)

I only have an opportunity to visit nurseries when our students go there for short-term internships, as I don't have any other time to spare. (FG04a)

How do you communicate with nursery teachers? Visiting the schools or observing the teaching?

Both, we can observe the teaching and talk to nursery teachers. (FG04b)

But I only communicate with my classmates who currently work as school teachers. (FG04a)

How often do you go to nurseries each year?

Students only do two days of work experience during their four years of studies, so I only have two days to go to nurseries. (FG04a)

Do you often communicate with your colleagues professionally? Do you have any lesson preparation groups or teaching research groups?

We would discuss anytime and anywhere. We often discuss things in relation to the situation in classes, teaching progression, feedback from the teaching, or even things about students' family education. So I feel that I am fully active every day, and I am always thinking about students, teaching and the college. (FG04b)

What approaches do you prefer for your professional development?

I think that I am studying while I am teaching in the classroom, as during the process of lesson preparation and communication with my students, I get a lot of fresh information and knowledge to improve myself. This is like the old Chinese saying, *Jiaoxuexiangzhang*, which was put forward by Confucius and means that teaching others is the same as teaching yourself. (FG04a)

We often learn through videos, communication with external groups, reading teaching materials and consultation with experts. (FG04b)

The college provides many activities for our professional development, such as teaching study discussions and training for different types of teacher organised by SHNU or SMEC, such as induction, key teacher training and so on. As a novice, I took part in induction and training in SHNU. (FG04e)

I am doing a part-time Ph.D., so I improve myself through updating my degree. (FG04d)

I tend to listen to lectures in relation to expertise on different subjects such as SPSS, learning skills and application of research projects and so on. In addition, Observing colleagues' teaching is a very effective way for PD. Actually, this way has been part of the regulations of the college. (FG04e)

How long do you spend on self-directed study?

As we have to engage in research projects, we have to undertake self-study. We are very busy with teaching during the day so self-study has to be done at home during the evening. (FG04b)

Do you often reflect on your professional development?

Yes, we often reflect on it. If we did not reflect, we could not teach in the classroom. We have to do our best to let our students be inspired during the lessons. (FG04e)

Did you obtain any support in relation to your professional development?

The college organises training projects and conferences for teachers. For instance, the college sends teachers to the annual conference on pre-school education in Shanghai, and organises an expert lecture once a week. (FG04c)

The College provides many activities for our professional development, such as teaching research discussions and training for different types of teachers organised by SHNU or SMEC, such as induction, key teacher training and so on. As a novice, I took part in induction and training in SHNU. (FG04e)

Are you satisfied with your professional development?

I do not think we can answer this question with a simple yes or no. (FG04b)

I am not totally satisfied. Sometimes I feel that my abilities are not equal to my ambitions. Physically, I often feel tired, as I have so many classes per day. At the end of the day, I am exhausted. So actually we cannot say that we do not have thoughts about our professional development, we really hope our professional development can be improved, but... (FG04c)

Most teachers in the Department of Education are very young females. (FG04b)

What difficulties do you encounter in the course of your professional development?

There are many factors, including personal factors. I am very lazy and I have a very heavy workload. (FG04c)

We hope we can return to the public sector as soon as possible, as we do not get higher wages than those who work in the public sector. As you know, the public sector has explicit regulations in relation to maximum workload. Unfortunately we do not have these. The private sector is not the same as the public sector. So even though we want to work hard and we can work hard, we still do not know what our future is. (FG04b)

Teachers who work in the public sector have a lot of opportunities for overseas training or off the job training, but we do not have these opportunities. For example, I teach a lesson on comparative primary education, which compares the current situation on primary education in Europe and America. I knew that the teacher who taught me that same course when I was in university had studied for a year in Europe before he taught us. I think that would be a good way to develop my expertise, but I do not have such an opportunity to go abroad. (FG04c)

I hope the department can decrease my workload when I study for my [part time] Ph.D. courses. I am doing a Ph.D. in SHNU, but as yet the college has not provided me with proper wages and a suitable workload. Even though the college encourages us teachers to update our degrees, they still do not want to pay our tuition fees. I am not sure they will pay back the money to me, although the college promised that, if I got a Ph.D. and had worked five years for the department, it would pay my money back. It is very strange that we do not see students on campus very often. They all stay in their dormitories. (FG04a)

Initially, I thought a university teacher would be very relaxed, and have a lot of time to do research and read and so on. I felt that I was not familiar with teaching and teaching methods when I was a teacher here. I began by teaching two courses per term, and I taught 17 classes (45 minutes per class) per week in the last term, and 18 classes this term. So you can imagine, the overall amount of lesson preparation is very large. In addition, I act as a counsellor and supervise 10 students. All of this is not what I imagined being a university teacher to be like. I am meant to practise, gather knowledge, and gradually make myself stronger during this period, but now, I feel ... (FG04d)

Libucongxin (ability does not equal one's ambition)! [Laugh] (FG04e)

I feel I am stressed. (FG04d)

As you know, our college lacks teachers, so every teacher has to use up all of their energy. There is a Chinese saying of one radish, one hole. In contrast, in Tianhua College we should now say "one radish, several holes". I hope I can engage in a higher platform for professional learning, especially in an opportunity for learning overseas. (FG04b)

Interview with FG05

Interview time: 2.00-3:40 p.m. 12 April 2013

Could you talk about your work?

We go to schools to study the situation of students, teachers and class teaching and then make a plan for teachers' work at district level. We especially think about the relevant and universal issues that teachers generally come across, in discussions with colleagues, and then work out how to solve them. (FG05c)

The main tasks for my work are to discover the issues relating to the teaching of teachers, establish a research direction at district level, and explicitly plan the things teachers need to carry out. (FG05a)

We also participate in many research projects. (FG05b)

I am a combination of researcher and practitioner. I always feel that I have a middle role rather than purely theoretical research or practice. My role comprises both theoretical and practical elements. (FG05e)

Do you often demonstrate teaching for the school teachers?

Yes, quite often, especially for the subjects of Chinese, mathematics and English. (FG05e)

We are in charge of guiding serving school teachers, supporting key subject teachers and training new teachers. (FG05a)

We also set examination papers at different levels in specific subjects, analyse the results of each examination, and explore ways to resolve issues and give feedback to the teachers and schools. (FG05b)

We need to provide a good deal of instruction for activities in relation to assessment, and demonstrate teaching in schools to the standard that our superiors require. (FG05c, d)

We have to implement whatever administrative orders are given by the relevant departments. (FG05e)

The things that we have recently been doing are assessments of subject teaching which usually run on a four year cycle, we assess effective teaching every year for the local education authority. (FG05c)

We also organise a teaching competition at district level, and then pick a winner to enter the city level competition for the district every year. During the selection process, we mentor teachers in teaching. (FG05d)

We sometimes act as judges in schools and in teaching competitions within our district or even outside our district. (FG05a)

What approaches do you take to your professional development?

There are more communications between the colleagues who are in the same subject than those in different subjects. We often have a collective discussion when we visit a school. (FG05e)

Although teacher educators in different subjects have different expertise, they do similar work and can therefore learn from each other. (FG05a)

In terms of assessing teaching in the schools, we have similar assessments on teaching behaviour, but we have different views on expertise. So we will discuss teaching behaviour together, even though we are experts in different subjects. (FG05c, d)

Teaching guide and activities of teaching research, because we need to demonstrate teaching at the beginning of the teaching research activities, observe the teacher's teaching, as well as discussing and giving feedback to teachers during the semester. Sometimes, the head teachers ask us to visit their schools and give them some support. (FG05b)

Actually, the best way to go about professional development for the novice teacher educators is to learn from the Special Grade Teachers or the leading figures in the subjects. (FG05b)

I spend most time observing teaching and giving the teachers advice. The structured working agenda that makes us too busy and pressured, we do not have time for our professional development, let alone degree updates (FG05d)

We teacher educators were key teachers and were picked from schools rather than directly from universities. We are the people who have teaching experience and are in charge of guiding serving teachers. However, our roles have been changed a lot, as the role of researcher has been more emphasised, and the workload has increased. (FG05e)

We work with school teachers. We always prepare lessons for school teachers, we observe the teaching of school teachers, we give feedback, we organise teaching study activities for school teachers, we organise teaching competitions for school teachers, and we get in touch with school teachers every day. (FG05c)

We have a lot of discussions, as soon as we meet any problems in our subject. This type of discussion is quite informal; we may discuss anytime, anywhere, if we want. (FG06a)

How do you enhance your professional development?

Firstly, SMEC requests that a standard teacher acquires 36 training credits every five years. Different grades and different work duties have different requirements. A junior teacher needs to complete 36 credits every five years, but a senior teacher needs to acquire 54 credits. The requirements for teacher educators are much higher than for standard teachers. (FG05e)

Do you mean you also need to get 54 credits, although you are senior teacher educators?

Yes, we also need to complete 54 credits. (FG05a)

Actually, the best means of professional development for young teacher educators is to learn from special grade teachers or the leading figures in the subjects. (FG05b)

Where do you listen to lectures and who offers them?

Generally, lectures and seminars are organised by the Institute of Teacher Research (ITR) of the SMEC. (All)

How often do they take place?

At most, [we often attend] two or three times per semester. There is a plan for training new teacher educators based on a five-year cycle. It has been in preparation for two years, but is not available yet. (FG05d)

But we have a training plan that is separately organised in each subject by ITR. (FG05b)

ITR also organises forums for each subject. All districts are involved and will exchange information on the different topics that they have researched, so we can achieve a lot through discussions with people inside and outside the district. (FG05e)

A few of the professors from universities, such as ECNU, SHNU and so on, often come and offer us very interesting lectures. (FG05c, d)

Do you like the lectures?

Some lectures focus on educational theories rather than practical knowledge, which is not the real need for school teachers. (FG05e)

But we should not denigrate them. I remember that when I was a young teaching researcher, it felt very good to listen to the professors. The lectures they gave were very useful. As we always lead teachers, we have formed a fixed way of thinking and teaching, so we need some new air to freshen our brains. (FG05c, d)

Teachers focus on how to do it rather than how to say it. They want to know how to do the first step, and then what the second step is. We teaching researchers should let them know how to teach step by step, rather than simply providing the theories. (FG05a)

In this case, teaching researchers need to think in different ways, so it is necessary to listen to the experienced professors. We must teach neither too much nor too little. Most of the lectures focus on educational theories and do not connect well with teaching practice. But some new knowledge at the cutting edge and with an international perspective will be beneficial for those of us who are short of forward-looking theories. (FG05c, d)

Actually, we study in groups divided by subject matter every Friday morning. We take time to exchange and share our ideas through discussions and presentations. Some colleagues who have completed their overseas visits often share their experience with us on these Fridays. (FG05a)

Do you continue studying this way?

Yes, but we have not studied recently, as we are too busy preparing documents for an appraisal of our school by the SMEC. (FG05c, d)

The first semester (normally from September to January) is always a good period for team studies, as there are a lot of big examinations in the second semester (normally from February to July), such as college and high school entrance examinations and so on. So we are usually very busy in the second semester. (FG05d)

Do you have any opportunities to go abroad?

Yes, but very few. (FG05b)

SMEC has launched a policy that each Teaching Researcher should have an opportunity to

visit domestically, but, as you know, this is only a policy. The implementation and all of the costs are paid by each teacher training school, so most of the schools do not have extra funding for such an activity. Also, we are very busy, and so we won't expect this type of opportunity, which actually means nothing. (FG05e)

Furthermore, the opportunity is limited to within China rather than internationally. (FG05d)

I know there is a project which involves shadowing a teacher overseas that we are allowed to apply for, but it is very difficult to meet the requirements. (FG05e)

Besides, we must stay at the institution to welcome the many visiting groups who come from different regions across the country, and organise a number of lectures and seminars for them, so we do not have enough time to go outside the city. (FG05d)

I think two things are essential for us. The first is self-directed study. We can thus gain cutting edge knowledge in relation to the subject. But we not only need to discuss the knowledge we get from experts but also research ourselves. So the second thing is reflection, which allows us to think about how to improve ourselves. These two things are very helpful towards our professional development. (FG05e)

We are also asked to undertake research studies or research projects which are indicators for our professional assessment. In order to complete them, we need to spend a lot of time on self-directed study. (FG05a)

There is an academic festival in our institution, which aims to encourage teachers to undertake research studies. As far as I know, other institutions do not have this opportunity. (FG05d)

Do you have time for self-directed study?

We only have fragments of time for self-study. For example, I'm doing a research activity that needs some materials and preparing a lesson that needs some resources. In these cases, I will read and think of what I need. As it is impossible for all of our PD to depend on training institutions, we need to undertake self-study. (FG05d)

Where do the learning resources come from?

Some of them come from websites while others come from bookshops or the library. (FG05b)

The institution has provided a database and an internet platform, where we can get various materials. However, we now have a new challenge in that some of these are written in English. I cannot read them unless they are translated into Chinese. The new knowledge becomes old knowledge as soon as the books are translated. Consequently, knowledge of English is a big obstacle that impacts on my professional development. (FG05c, d)

Did you obtain any support in relation to your professional development?

They organise teaching competitions for teaching researchers, research article competitions etc. Some teaching researchers are sent to participate in the NTTP. (FG05e)

As we were selected to be teaching researchers as key teachers, we have to leave space for school teachers to join the NTTP. In this way, the training opportunities for teaching researchers in the NTTP are reduced. (FG05d)

Some teachers who have not participated in the NTTP would like to engage in it while some teachers who have been trained in the NTTP feel that they did not achieve a lot. (FG05e)

For young key teachers, the NTTP is very good, but for teaching researchers, training in the NTTP is not very effective. (FG05c, d)

Anyway, if we had training opportunities, we would of course engage in them. In addition, SMEC encourages us to update our degrees. We would be exempt from the credits SMEC require if we have updated our degrees. (FG05e)

The school and the Institute of Teaching Studies (a department of Shanghai Municipal Education Commission) both encouraged us to get involved in formal studies, e.g. Ph.D. and Ed.D. If we get involved in them, the school provides part of our tuition fees for us, but they do not encourage off-the-job studies, as they do not want our work to be interrupted. (FG05a)

For example, the school encourages us to work hard, and if we reach the requirements, we will be selected as a top teacher who can have a lot of award and professional development opportunities. (FG05b)

Are you satisfied with your professional development?

If our superiors, especially in the institution, would not deny us opportunities, we would be happy. (FG05e)

It depends. Satisfaction mainly depends on whether you look at the work of teaching researchers as an enterprise or only as work. There is a big difference. If it is the former, you will never be satisfied with your professional development. (FG05b)

What difficulties do you encounter in the course of your professional development?

We do a lot of work on working days, so we have very little time to think about our professional development. Sometimes my studies are based on work demands. For example, if I do not have particular knowledge when I am working on a project, I have to put my work aside and squeeze in some time for self-directed study. In addition to this, I hardly have time to sit down in my office during the day. So if I have something that needs to be done, I have to work into the night. As someone mentioned before, if I see the work as an enterprise, I will overcome all difficulties and study. If I see it as work, I will put study aside, and take care of my kids and enjoy family time. (FG05a)

We have a heavy workload, so most research studies have to be done at home, usually in the evenings. (FG05b)

I often distinguish between my tasks, so if something has to be done today, such as something that must be handed in the following day; I will work till late on that. (FG05c, e)

We lack a system of training, especially for overall training, and training opportunities are very limited. (All)

Interview with FG06

Interview time: 2.00-2.50 p.m. 28 March 2013

Can you tell us about your institution?

Yes, the institution has about 100 staff including over 50 teaching researchers and over 50 teacher trainers. The institution has merged these two sections into the Department of Research and Training which is responsible for in-service teacher training and teaching research. (All)

How were you selected to be a teacher educator here?

We were all selected by the institution through a competition from a school that worked in. (All)

What qualifications as a teaching researcher did you need to have when you applied for the position?

We had to at least have a Bachelor degree, a middle-ranking post, over 5 years of teaching experience, and be a major influence regionally in the teaching and research field. (FG06a)

What does being “a major influence” mean?

I think, being a major influence means you have a creditable performance in teaching and your ideas and your practice in teaching and research are well accepted and recognised by other professionals. (FG06b)

You show that your leaders, colleagues, parents and students accept you, so you must be performing better than the teachers around you. (FG06a, c)

Could you talk about your work?

My section is the Office of Teacher Education. This office was established recently, as teacher education is being increasingly emphasised. The office is mainly in charge of the

management of teacher training projects and regional training credits. (FG06b)

What are the elements of induction in your institution?

Induction means all the training at different levels for first year school teachers. The first type is at district level. This training includes the 24 Questions about the Curriculum for Novices, general knowledge training, and activities such as visiting Songjiang, new teachers' social events, the teaching salon etc. Training at district level is normally carried out every two weeks. The second form of training takes place in the training bases in schools. Songjiang has 32 teacher training bases in schools, governed by the educational authority of Songjiang. New teachers are sent to one of these bases, and are mentored by senior teachers. The third form of training is school-based training carried out by each school. (FG06b)

In addition, we also have tasks that involve academic research. We need to submit current articles, the ITR [Institute of Teaching Research] of SMEC marks and publicly ranks all the articles so you can imagine how much pressure there is! (FG06a)

What professional development activities have you engaged in?

Some are part of our normal activities. The first is the most important and is the routine teaching research activity organised by teaching researchers themselves because it is our basic work. Second is collective study by all the staff in the institution. We often have training in relation to general knowledge of education, teaching skills and so on. Third are the professional activities organised by the SMEC, such as training, competitions and so on. Fourth are the overseas exchanges organised by and the institution. Fifth are the national training projects, such as NTTP and so on. (FG06a)

In addition, there is a distinctive school-based study on building communities. We have weekly lectures, in which the topics relate to general knowledge, teaching practice. (FG06c)

We sometimes are sent to training programmes. For example, recently we took part in the New Rural Training for Teacher Trainers, which was organised by the Institute of Teaching Studies. Sometimes, the Teacher Training Centre and the Department of Human Resources of Shanghai Municipal Education Commission organise training programmes for us. We felt these types of training were practical. The city level activities are normally organised by the STTC, the Department of Teacher Education of SMEC, the ITR, and the Educational Society etc. (FG06a)

Apart from training the trainers for the new rural areas, and the training for teacher educators, there are projects for high quality teachers and head teachers, and for young teachers etc. (FG06d)

The timetable of activities organised by the local authority and our institution is always fixed. (FG06a)

There is actually regular training, every week, on Monday afternoon, in total more than 10 times per semester. (FG06c)

Does each teaching researcher have opportunities to participate in activities at the city level?

Yes, we are informed of them by the relevant departments. (FG06a)

However, we four who work in the office of teacher education do not have these opportunities. (FG06e)

Yes, due to us not having a direct superior. (FG06a)

Do all the teaching researchers have the opportunity to go overseas?

No. We have been constrained by so many conditions. (All)

The teaching researchers in English have more choices. (FG06a)

We have been constrained (regarding going aboard) by so many conditions. I have worked 26 years as a Teaching Researcher, and during this period, I only once saw teaching researchers sent abroad, to Australia in 2003. (FG06e)

Do you often communicate with your colleagues?

We often discuss together, and the discussion is not formal. We often discuss issues in relation to research projects and teaching experience. (FG06a)

Those of us who teach the minor subjects (outside the subjects of Chinese language, English language and mathematics, such as history, geography, politics and so on) are in one office. The teaching researchers who teach Chinese language, English language and mathematics are in their own offices; for example, the three teaching researchers in

mathematics are in one office together. (FG06b)

Similar subjects are in one office in order to discuss conveniently and easily. (FG06a)

Do you often communicate with school teachers?

[Yes], very often. (FG06b)

We often go to schools to prepare lessons with school teachers, and observe and assess the teachers teaching as well as to see the teaching competitions. So we have many opportunities to communicate with school teachers. (FG06a)

Can you recognise all the teachers in your subject?

Yes, that is a requirement. (All)

Yes, many leaders at the base schools often invite us to participate in their school-based teaching research activities. (FG06a)

Also, we often involve ourselves in activities that help them solve the issues of transitions at first grade or graduating grade in the schools. (FG06e)

In addition, all of our teaching researchers, full or part-time, sometimes take part in activities that are organised by the Songjiang Education Bureau. In a school teacher's eyes, we are the experts; however, we do not see ourselves as experts, but merely teaching researchers. It is very difficult to say which one is better. As far as I am concerned, I believe that the training carried out by SMEC in relation to educational policy and professional leadership is very useful while the activities at district level are very basic. So we need to connect theory and practice and identify the issues that need to be resolved. In addition, the lectures given by a number of experts that are organised by our institution are also helpful. (FG06a)

So it is not easy to say one is more helpful than another. (FG06a, e)

We cannot omit any one as each has its own benefits. (All)

We need to think during every training session. (FG06b)

If we could see all the activities as a whole, each activity would have a part to play. (FG06d)

The central group discussion and team collaboration are both very useful. To a teaching researcher, the most important professional development activity is training at city level. I was involved in the NTTP last year. I felt that it was very necessary to be trained in the NTTP in order to be a teaching researcher. The state should provide more opportunities of this kind for teaching researchers. (FG06c)

Another approach is the “task-driven” approach, which is led by your superior and is very effective for teaching researchers. (FG06e)

It can improve your thinking and change pressure into motivation. (FG06d)

Upgrading your degree (FG06e)

Did you obtain any support in relation to your personal development?

The guarantee of funding (FG06d)

SMEC provides many developmental platforms for teaching researchers such as task-driven projects, forums, publication and so on. For example, if you have written a good article, the teaching researcher in the ITR of SMEC often recommends it to the relevant journals. (FG06a, e)

For example, SMEC organises collaborative projects for two districts in order to prompt exchanges and share experience. The districts are often matched randomly, they change every year and the forms of collaboration are also different. (FG06a)

SMEC offers a lot of opportunities to exchange with other districts. (FG06e)

What are you not satisfied with?

I feel like a rubber band that is always stretched too tight (this means I always feel pressurised). (FG06a)

We are under such strong pressure from work. (All)

We are asked to make every aspect of our work high quality; for example, we should teach well, research well, otherwise we are not competent enough to be teaching researchers. (FG06d)

The requirement for teaching researchers to complete every aspect of our work well is very demanding. Nobody can do that. So we are under very high pressure. For example, I

guided a school teacher to engage in a teaching competition at city level. If the result had not been first place, I would not only have been scorned by our head, but I would also have felt dismayed personally.

In addition, we also have tasks that involve academic research. We need to submit current articles, the ITR of SMEC marks and publicly ranks all the articles so you can imagine how much pressure there is! (FG06a)

Are there any regulations for academic research?

Yes. Normally, publication at district level is not accepted as an achievement when you apply for a higher professional post. (All)

Do you need to demonstrate teaching in front of school teachers?

Yes, we need to do many teaching demonstrations in front of school teachers. This teaching is called *Xiashuike*. We have to complete each course successfully; we cannot fail. (All)

In particular, I have a bad feeling in demonstrations. I felt very relaxed when the teaching researcher observed my teaching at the time when I was a teacher in a school. But at the moment, I teach as a teaching researcher and so I feel very nervous, as I am seen as a teaching researcher rather than a teacher. (FG06a)

Sometimes we need to give lectures for school teachers. I feel I am very stressed when doing this. (FG06b)

Generally, during the stage in which we inspect a school for one week, we need to do teaching demonstrations and give lectures. For example, there are two teaching researchers within the department of English language in our institution. During that week, if one teaches, the other should give a lecture to the school. (FG06a)

Do you feel under any pressure when you comment on the teachers' teaching?

Yes, but this is routine work; we have adapted to commenting on teaching, so we seldom feel stressed. If the comments do not address the right points, this will cause the teachers dissatisfaction. (FG06a)

The annual tasks of academic research are very hard for us; we feel stressed then. (FG06b)

Also, the school requires each teaching researcher to launch a training project every two years, for example training for the leaders of teaching research groups, training for beginning teachers, training for teachers with three to five years of teaching experience and so on. Generally, these training projects are subject to the needs of the school teachers in their subjects. (All)

Do other teacher training institutions have this requirement?

Most teacher training institutions in the city centre are independent. However, some are integrated like us, Qingpu, Jiading and so on. (FG06a, b)

Have you come across any obstacles in terms of your professional development?

In addition, as there are so many school teachers and few teaching researchers in the district, many school teachers do not have opportunities to be guided by a teaching researcher. For example, each subject only has teacher training activity once a week. As you know, each subject has many grades, but we can only organise one activity for one grade each week. Due to teaching commitments and the relevant grade for that week, most school teachers cannot participate in the teaching research activities. (FG06d)

The number of school teachers is increasing, but the number of teaching researchers still has not changed. So teaching researchers are always busy; they do not have time for their professional development, nor their families and children.

Their time has been spread too thinly. The time for self-directed study is almost zero. We do not have time to sit down to do research. (FG06a)

I often do research in evenings and at weekends. We are so busy which is shown by the full agenda in my diary even at the beginning of the term. I often write or mark examination papers at home. (FG06e)

We also deal with many things that are not relevant to our duties. Many teachers like to ask us to check their articles before they apply for promotion. (FG06d)

We work all day and all night every week; we do not have time to spend with our families and children. (FG06a)

My work pressure results from my being in charge of two subjects including one that I have not studied before. (FG06e)

Part-time work in minor subjects is very popular. (FG06d)

I have to spend a lot of time on the new subject; sometimes I call people who know about the subject at midnight. (FG06e)

In addition, there is a big issue that often disturbs us. We need to write examination papers for all the grades in every school in the district. We are always very nervous for several weeks about whether the papers are ok or not. On the one hand, we are concerned that errors will occur in the papers, as errors in the papers would be seen as our mistakes. On the other hand, I need to produce an appropriate average score. If the average score is too low, the leader of our institution will criticise me and the schools will blame me. If the average score is too high, they will also blame me. So we are much stressed. (FG06a)

We always look at the examination papers that we write many times before the examination. I cannot calm down before the end of the test season. (All)

In terms of personal development, what do you need currently?

I hope we can have more opportunities for training. It would be great if we could be trained off the job. I also hope that I can have a sabbatical and so on. Also, we need financial support, for example, we need funding for organising activities. That's really important. So sometimes we are very embarrassed and it is very hard to organise an activity. (FG06a)